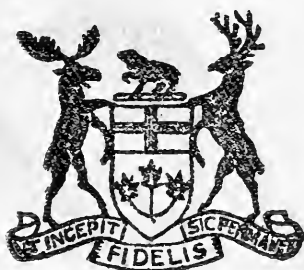


THE ONTARIO  
PUBLIC SCHOOL HISTORY  
OF  
ENGLAND  
AND  
CANADA

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GEORGE V, KING OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND  
AND THE BRITISH DOMINIONS BEYOND THE SEAS

# ONTARIO PUBLIC SCHOOL HISTORY OF ENGLAND

*AUTHORIZED BY  
THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION FOR ONTARIO  
FOR USE IN  
FORMS IV AND V OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS*

FOURTH EDITION

TORONTO  
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# HISTORY OF ENGLAND

## CHAPTER I

### THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN

55 B. C. - 410 A. D.

1. **The Romans first hear of Britain.**—About half a century before the birth of Christ, a great Roman general named Julius Cæsar set out to subdue the various tribes living in the country then called Gaul, and now called France. The people nearest to Dover Strait resisted him longest, and he concluded that some one must be helping them. Who could it be? The tribes on three sides of them would not dare to oppose him, and on the fourth side was the ocean. At last Cæsar conquered these people and went through their land to the sea. On the north-west there were dim, white cliffs far out on the horizon. As he stood looking at them, he remembered the aid that had come to his foes from some mysterious source. "That is it," he said to himself, "and if I am to hold the land that I have won, I must conquer that country afar off in the ocean."

2. **Cæsar attempts to learn about Britain.**—Probably all that Cæsar knew about the country was that it was thought to be an island, that it was called Britain, and that somewhere in Britain there were mines of tin. He questioned the people whom he had subdued, but they said that they knew nothing of it, except that merchants sometimes went back and forth between the two countries. Then Cæsar sent for the merchants and questioned them. They also could give him no information, as they went only to the coast of Britain, and they knew nothing at all about what was inland. Cæsar

saw that if he wished to learn anything about this strange land with the white cliffs, he must find it out for himself; so he sent one of his officers across Dover Strait in a warship to gain what information he could about the country. This officer did not think it was wise to attempt to land and trust himself among the natives; and therefore, when he came back, he had little news to bring to his commander.

**3. Caesar's first invasion of Britain, 55 B.C.**—Caesar then determined to go to the unknown country to see in person what kind of place it was, and to conquer the people who had been helping his foes. One night, just after midnight, he set sail with eight or ten thousand men, and by the middle of the next forenoon they were close to the coast of Britain, and ready to land. Landing was not so easy,



JULIUS CÆSAR

however, as he thought it would be, for his ships were so large that they could not go where the water was shallow; hence the soldiers had to jump out into the deep water and wade ashore through the surf as best they could. This would have been hard enough to do in any case, for they wore very heavy armour; but, worst of all, there were great numbers of men on the shore ready to fight. Some of them were in war-chariots,

some were on horseback, and some were on foot. They were armed with darts and battle-axes, and clubs and bows and great stones. It is no wonder that even the brave Roman soldiers hesitated.

At last the standard-bearer of Caesar's favourite legion sprang overboard and called out. "Follow me, soldiers, unless you want to give up your eagle!" The soldiers, fearing the disgrace of losing their standard, leaped out into the deep water, and made their way to the shore. As soon as they had a firm footing on dry ground, they put the Britons to flight.



The Britons were so much impressed by the bravery of the Romans that, as soon as they had rallied after their flight, they sent messengers to ask for peace. This Cæsar was ready to grant; he demanded, however, as a pledge for their good behaviour in the future, that some of their chiefs should remain in his camp. Some hostages were given at once, but the Britons explained that others were in distant parts of the country, and that it would take a few days to bring them.

In the meantime, misfortunes came upon the Romans. The ships containing the cavalry were driven back by a storm; some of the vessels on the shore were wrecked by the high tides; and the Britons attacked and killed some of the soldiers sent out to collect food. A large force of Britons also gathered near the Roman camp. Cæsar at once attacked them, and pursued them to one of their villages, which he burned. The Britons again sent messengers asking for peace. Cæsar again granted it, but ordered them to give twice as many hostages as before, and to send them to him on the continent. He did not wish to remain longer, for his ships were not in good condition and he feared the autumnal storms. He did not wait to receive them, however, but returned hastily to Gaul. He had done little during his three weeks' stay in Britain, and had not advanced more than a mile from the shore.

**4. Cæsar's second invasion, 54 B.C.**—During the winter Cæsar gathered a large force of soldiers, and in July of the following year went sailing towards the coast of Britain with eight hundred ships, carrying twenty-five thousand foot-soldiers and two thousand horsemen. When the Britons saw this great fleet approaching, they fled to the woods in terror. Cæsar's men landed and pursued them to a fort in which they had taken refuge. This was a small woodland surrounded by a wall of earth and a deep ditch. After a severe struggle, the fort was captured.

The Britons were led by a famous chief, Caswallon, or, as the Romans called him, Cassivelaunus. As Cæsar's forces advanced, the Britons slowly withdrew, keeping up a running fight with their horsemen and charioteers. Finding

that they suffered great loss and that they were unable to stop the advance of the Romans, many of the Britons gave up the struggle and dispersed. But Cassivelaunus with about four thousand charioteers kept up the fight. With his swiftly moving troops he made sallies from the woods and harassed Caesar's line of march. At last, after Caesar had attacked his stronghold and captured it with a great number of cattle, the chief wealth of the tribe, the British chieftain surrendered. He gave a large number of hostages, promised to pay tribute every year, and not to harm the tribes that had previously made friends with Caesar. As winter was now approaching, Caesar returned to Gaul, thinking that there was no further danger of the Britons sending help to their friends across the Channel.

**5. Manners and customs of the Britons.**—Not long after Caesar invaded Britain, he wrote a book about his campaigns, and of course he described this far-away land and its strange inhabitants. "The people are numerous," he says, "beyond all counting, and very numerous also their houses; the number of their cattle is great. They use gold or bars of iron of a fixed weight for money. Tin is found in the inland parts; iron near the sea-coast, but the quantity of this is but small." Grain was grown somewhat extensively in the south; farther north the inhabitants did not sow grain, but lived on their flocks and herds and on the wild animals they killed.

Most of the men whom Caesar fought with were tall, with blue eyes and long, light hair. They wore short cloaks of skins, and stained their bodies with a deep blue dye. They were fond of bright colours and of ornaments, such as beads, bracelets, and necklaces, some of which were exceedingly pretty. Most of their houses were round. When a man wished to build one, he first marked out on the ground the size he meant the house to be; then he set down poles close together, and made them firm by weaving in pliant twigs. For the roof he fastened other poles to the tops of the first and brought them together in a point. When he meant his house to be especially handsome, he peeled the poles.

There were no windows, and the only way for the smoke to escape was through a little hole in the point of the roof.

The Britons were very skilful with their hands, particularly in the weaving of wicker-work. They made very simple boats by hollowing out logs, and very light ones by covering wicker-work with the skins of wild beasts; but they also understood how to build boats of planks fastened together by metal nails.

But what astonished Caesar most was the way the Britons fought, and their daring and courage in battle. Each Briton had a long sword and a dagger, made of copper

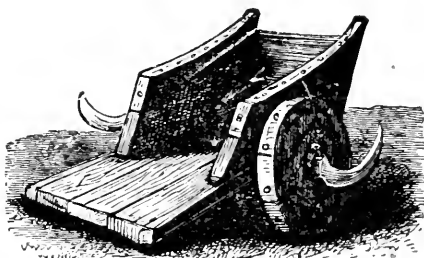


WICKERWORK CORACLES OF THE EARLY BRITONS

or bronze, and carried a small round shield of wicker-work covered with raw-hide. Many of them fought from chariots, which they managed very skilfully. These chariots were broad, low, two-wheeled carts, which would carry a driver and several warriors. They had long, hooked scythes fastened to the axles, and extending out on both sides. The horses were so well trained that they could be driven at furious speed over the roughest ground and into the ranks of the enemy, cutting down everything that came near them. The warriors would then leap down and fight on foot, while the chariot was driven off to one side. If they were getting

the worst of the fight they would run to the chariot and drive away again as rapidly as they came. The Britons, however, were lacking in steady discipline, as they were led by separate chiefs who were often at war with one another, and this frequently prevented them from showing a united front to the enemy.

**6. The religion of the Britons.**—The religion of the Britons was called Druidism. It was a fierce, strange belief. Part



BRITISH WAR CHARIOT

of it was exceedingly cruel; for the priests, or Druids, taught the people to make wicker-work inclosures outlining the shape of some animal, and in these inclosures to offer up sacrifices of human beings. For this purpose they took

criminals, when there were any, but if the supply of criminals failed, they then took innocent people.

Part of their religion was very superstitious; they worshipped serpents, streams, and trees, especially the oak tree. When an oak was found with a mistletoe growing on it, they were overjoyed. They marched to the tree in a procession, the Druids, with their long beards and trailing robes, going first. The other people followed, and when they came to the oak tree, they circled around it, the common people farthest off; for an oak that bore a mistletoe was too holy for any one but a priest to touch. Then the Druids sacrificed two white bulls; and after much chanting and many strange ceremonies, one of the priests cut away the plant with a golden knife.

At Stonehenge, on Salisbury Plain, in southern England, are massive stones arranged in two circles, one within the other. It is thought that these stones may be the remains of a Druid temple.

**7. The third Roman invasion.**—When Cæsar returned to

Rome there was great rejoicing among the Romans over his successful wars in Gaul and Britain, and a grand thanksgiving of twenty days was ordered. Cæsar, however, did not return to Britain, and eleven years later he was assassinated. A great civil war arose after his death, which ended in making Rome an empire. The Romans were so busy with these and other matters at home, that it was nearly a century before they went again to Britain.

In 43 A.D. the Emperor Claudius set about the conquest of Britain in earnest. Plautius, one of his generals, with an army of forty thousand men, was sent to subdue the island. At this time Caradoc, or Caraetacus, the great-grandson of Cas-sivelaunus, was the ruling chief. After nine years of desperate fighting, Caraetacus was made prisoner, taken to Rome, and led in chains through the streets. As he saw the splendid buildings and the wealth of the capital city of the world, he exclaimed, "Strange that they who have such splendid possessions, should envy us our poor huts!" The emperor was so pleased with the proud bearing of the captive that he set him at liberty, but he would not allow him to return to his native land.

The Romans now proceeded to build fortified camps, which soon grew into cities, and they settled in Britain as a conquered country. They spared the Britons who made submission, but gave them no part in the government. In fact, the Britons were often little better than the slaves of their Roman masters. So grievous, indeed, did the yoke become, that the Druids encouraged the young men to rebel and to try to win back their freedom. For this advice, the Roman general Suetonius took a terrible revenge. He landed on the island of Anglesey, surprised the Druids in their sacred grove, and put most of them to the sword. But hardly had he returned from this expedition, when he was called upon to face a general uprising of the Britons under Boadicea, the queen of the Iceni. The queen had been robbed of her property, and both she and her daughters had been shamefully scourged and abused by the Romans. She roused the Britons by telling the story of her wrongs, and, gathering an army,

attacked London and other Roman colonies. In a few days seventy thousand Romans were slain. None were spared, but men, women, and children alike fell beneath the fury of the Britons.

With ten thousand men Suetonius was forced, in 62, to face an army of one hundred and twenty thousand Britons led by Boadicea. The Roman general had chosen his own ground for the battle, and soon the discipline and superior arms of the Romans gave them the advantage. The Britons turned and fled in confusion. In the battle and the pursuit that followed, over eighty thousand of them were slain. Boadicea poisoned herself. The cause of the Britons was lost for **ever**.

**S. Military results of the Roman conquest.**—The insurrection of the Britons had been caused by Roman misrule, and in 78 Agricola was sent to the island as governor, with the object of restoring peace. He knew that a lasting peace must rest on good government, and, although he extended the Roman power by conquering more of the island, yet he ruled justly and well. His chief task



ROMAN WALLS

was to secure the land against the savage tribes on the border, especially the Picts of Scotland and the Scots from Ireland. To keep off the northern invaders, he built a chain of forts connecting the Clyde and the Forth in

Scotland. The Emperor Hadrian visited Britain in 121, and, fearing that the Picts would break through Agricola's chain of forts, built a wall of earth between the Solway and the Tyne as a second line of defence. This was strengthened later by a wall of solid masonry about eight feet wide and fifteen feet high, built just north

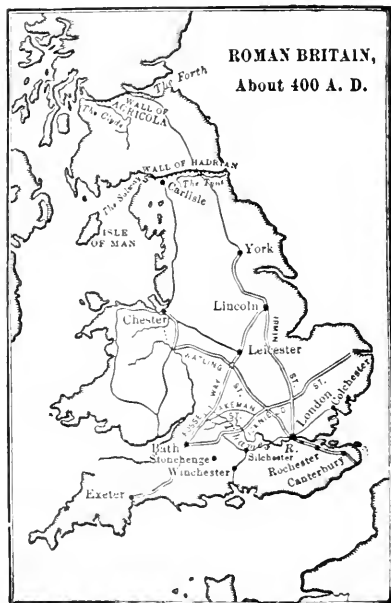
of the earthen wall. This famous wall, parts of which still exist, was seventy-three miles in length. On it there were stone strongholds and watch-towers, and once in every four miles there was a fort where soldiers were always stationed. Forty years later, under the Emperor Antoninus, another wall, of earth, was thrown up on the line of Agricola's forts.

In order to move their armies rapidly from place to place, the Romans built many excellent roads, one extending the whole length of Hadrian's wall, and others connecting the various colonies and military camps. During the third century of Roman rule the eastern shore was troubled more and more by the attacks of the Saxons, daring pirates who came over the sea to plunder. To guard against these attacks, a watch-tower and fort were built at every convenient landing, and placed under the command of a special officer who had the title "Count of the Saxon Shore."

**9. Progress of Britain under the Romans.**—When the Romans first settled in Britain, they found the country a land of swamp and forest, with occasional stretches of open ground. Small clearings were scattered through these forests, where miserable villages were built, and a little grain cultivated. Cattle, hides, tin, slaves, a small amount of grain, and a few dusky pearls were the only exports. But little by little the Romans changed the appearance of the country. Many swamps were drained, and the cultivation of new grains, vegetables and fruits was extended, until Britain gained the proud title of the "Granary of the North."

The great Roman military camps, nearly fifty in all, became prosperous towns. Near these military camps Romans of high rank built large, handsome houses. The walls were beautifully painted, and the floors were paved with marble of many colours. Around these houses were spacious gardens, adorned with statues, and rich in all kinds of fruit that could be made to grow on the island. Even to-day, in digging in different parts of England, people often find pieces of statuary and vases, and ornaments of gold or of silver, that were once used to beautify the British homes of the Romans.

But although the poor Britons saw their country growing rich and prosperous, and although they learned much that was useful, yet for the most part they were harshly treated. To support their conquerors in luxury they were obliged to



pay enormous taxes. They built the roads, drained the swamps, and worked the mines. Thousands of them were compelled to enter the army, and were then removed to the remotest frontiers to fight the battles of the Roman empire. In no case might a Briton become a Roman soldier in his own country, but he might fight for Rome in Asia or Africa, while the imperial army in Britain contained Moors, Greeks, and Germans. Some few, of course, who were the sons of chiefs, learned the Roman language and

became officers in the army or rose to positions of importance in civil life.

The Britons as a whole, however, remained untouched by the influence of Roman civilization. They continued to live in their own villages, and retained, for the most part, their ancient customs. Their language, too, remained the same. During the later years of Roman rule, Christianity spread to some extent among the Britons. It was first brought to the island probably by soldiers and merchants who had been converted in Rome. But it is probable that the greater number of the Christians were to be found in the towns, and that the people in the villages and in the



interior of the country continued to worship the gods of their fathers.

10. **The Romans abandon Britain.**—If the Romans could have given all their attention to Britain, they would have been able to conquer the whole island, but the great Roman empire was slowly tottering to its fall. The barbarian tribes of the north and east were pressing nearer and nearer to the city, and the Romans must defend their own country. Every year fewer Romans came to Britain, and every year some of the conquerors had to return to Italy. At last, in 410, soldiers and commanders departed from the island, and never again did they set foot on British soil.

### SUMMARY

Julius Cæsar first led the Romans into Britain. He found a people that were warlike, of some mechanical ability, and with a slight knowledge of agriculture. Rome celebrated the invasion, but made no immediate attempts to conquer the country. About a century later, the Romans, after a fierce contest, subdued the island as far north as the Solway, made settlements, drained swamps, built walls and roads, cultivated the soil, and ruled in the land for nearly four hundred years. They finally abandoned the country in 410 A.D.

## CHAPTER II

### THE SAXONS AND THE DANES

410-1066

11. **The coming of the Saxons.**—After the Romans had abandoned the island, the condition of the Britons was pitiable. They had been so long under the protection of the Roman soldiers that they had almost forgotten how to defend themselves, and, moreover, the various tribes were quarrelling with one another as they had done when the Romans first invaded Britain. The Scots and Picts were coming down upon them from the north and north-west, and the Saxons were coming from over the sea and landing on the eastern and southern shores. These marauders burned the houses and crops, stole the treasures, and either killed the people or carried them away as slaves. At last the sufferers sent a piteous letter to Rome. It was called "The Groans of the Britons," and it begged that the Romans would come and help them. "The barbarians," it said, "drive us to the sea, the sea drives us back to the barbarians; and between them we are either slain or drowned." There were other barbarians, however, than those that distressed Britain, and now great hordes of them were coming down upon Rome, so that the Romans had more than they could do to take care of themselves, and not one soldier could be spared to help the Britons.

Finally, one tribe of the Britons decided to ask the aid of the Saxons against the Picts and the Scots, and agreed to allow them, in return for their assistance, to live on the island of Thanet, near the coast of Kent. The Saxons were willing and came in 449 under two chiefs, Hengist and Horsa. They drove back the Picts and the Scots, and they settled on Thanet. But before long they found Thanet too

small, so they drove the Britons away from the south-eastern corner of the land, and took it for themselves. Attracted by the rich plunder, the mildness of the climate, and the richness of the soil, more and more of the Saxons came, and the Britons were driven farther and farther to the west. They were not cowards, and they resisted so valiantly that it was more than one hundred years before they were really overcome.

One of the British chiefs, King Arthur, succeeded in uniting the tribes of the Britons, and for a time made some headway against the heathen invaders. He is said to have made his residence at Caerleon in Wales, where he lived in splendid state, gathering about him many brave knights and beautiful ladies. Twelve of the noblest and bravest of these knights sat with the king about the "Round Table." These "Knights of the Round Table," were accustomed to ride out in search of adventures, and were bound by vows to protect women, punish oppressors, chain up wicked giants and dwarfs, and to drive back the heathen. In time King Arthur and his brave knights passed away, but the descendants of the Britons in Wales still tell the story of their early hero king.

Little is known about the fate of the Britons. Large numbers of them fell in battle; probably many of them became the slaves of the conquerors; the remainder were driven into the highlands of the north and the west. Thousands of the invaders, attracted by the fertile lands of the Britons and the plunder to be obtained, poured into the country. Britain was in the hands of the Saxons, and thenceforth the country was known as England.

**12. The Saxons on the continent.**—The new conquerors had lived in Jutland and about the mouth of the Elbe River. There were in reality three tribes, the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons, but the Britons spoke of them all as Saxons. They belonged to the Low German stock; that is, they lived in the low parts of Germany bordering on the Baltic and North Seas.

In the writings of the Roman historian, Tacitus, there is a description of the German tribes to which the Saxons belonged. The men were tall and muscular, with fair hair and



this is their highest mark of applause, to praise by the sound of their arms."

These German tribes worshipped many gods. The English names for some of the days of the week are derived from the names of their principal deities. Wednesday is the day of Woden, or Odin, the father of the gods, from whom the chiefs claimed descent. Thursday is Thor's day; Friday is Freya's day; and Tuesday is named for Tiw, the god of death.

War was the chief occupation of these tribes. It was considered disgraceful to get anything by peaceful industry that could be obtained by war; and they believed that the warrior who fell with his face to the foe was carried at once by the Valkyries, or "war-maidens," to the great hall of Woden to enjoy an eternity of fighting and feasting in the company of heroes.



**13. The Saxon kingdoms.**—At first the Saxons were divided into many tribes, each with its own territory. The South-Saxons lived in Sussex, the West-Saxons in Wessex, and the East-Saxons in Essex. The Jutes settled chiefly in Kent, and the Angles in Mercia, East Anglia, and Northumbria. These seven kingdoms were called the Heptarchy.

These seven kingdoms were constantly engaged in a struggle for the mastery; but at last, in 827, Egbert, king of Wessex, showed himself stronger than the rest, and one

by one the others acknowledged him as overlord; that is, they paid tribute to him, and promised to obey if he called upon them to help him fight. He took the title of "King of the English," and, with a very few exceptions, every sovereign of England from that day to this has been a descendant of Egbert.

**14. Christianity is preached in England.**—The Britons had known something of Christianity long before this; but after the Saxons came, there was so little of it left in the country that people spoke of the island as a heathen land. There were Christians hidden away in the mountains of Wales; and in Ireland a zealous missionary, Saint Patrick, had told the Irish of Christianity, and they had flourishing churches and famous schools, while England was worshipping the heathen gods. England was not entirely forsaken, however, for far away, over the sea and over the mountains, was a monk named Gregory who was thinking very earnestly about the needs of this land. One day he had seen in the market-place in Rome some young English who were to be sold as slaves. Most of the Romans had dark complexions, and he was struck with the appearance of these English, with their fair skin, red cheeks, blue eyes, and golden hair. "Not Angles, but angesles," said he, "with faces so angel-like!" When Gregory became Pope, he resolved to christianize the country from which these English came. As he could not himself leave Rome, he sent, in 597, a missionary named Augustine to preach the Gospel to the English.

The king of Kent, Ethelbert, had married Bertha, a Christian princess from Germany, and so did not object to Augustine's coming to England; at least, he was willing that the missionaries should land on the island of Thanet. "Then," he said, "I will meet you there, and hear what you have to say about this new religion, and if it seems to me to be true, I will accept it." The missionaries came, and Augustine stood before the king and told him about the religion of the one God. Although the Saxons were never hasty in accepting new ideas, it was not long before the king told Augustine that he believed the new religion was true, and

that he was glad to have the missionaries teach his people about it. The example of Ethelbert had its influence, and the new faith spread rapidly. The monks who came with Augustine were wise men who knew that the people could not change their fierce, cruel natures in a few months. They laboured faithfully and set noble examples of pure, self-sacrificing lives, so that, little by little, the whole island was won over to Christianity.

As soon as a district was christianized, a monastery was founded. Nor were the monks merely missionaries and teachers; every monastery had its fields, where grains and vegetables of many kinds were grown and where fruits were cultivated. In this way the monks were able to do much good, because every monastery became a centre where men were prepared for a higher life by being taught how best to live this life.

**15. Cædmon, the first English poet.**—Convents also soon began to rise in the land. One of these convents was on a cliff at Whitby, far up on the north-east shore of England. It was the custom at the feasts for each one in turn to take the harp and sing verses that he either composed or remembered. There is a legend that Cædmon, one of the dwellers at this convent, felt so disgraced because he could not sing any verses that, when the harp was coming near him, he slipped away and went to the stable. In a dream he heard a voice saying:—

“Cædmon, sing!”

“But I cannot sing,” he said, “and that is why I came away from the feast.”

“You must sing for me,” said the voice.

“What shall I sing?” asked Cædmon.

“Sing about the creation of the world,” answered the voice.

Cædmon sang, and when he awoke he found that he had not forgotten the verses. The abbess was told of the wonderful dream, and, after Cædmon had made more verses, she concluded that the new power that had come to him was a gift from God. His poem is about the creation, and is a kind of paraphrase of the Book of Genesis. This is,

so far as we know, the first poetry that was written in England.

**16. Bede, the first writer of English prose.**—For the first prose we must turn to one of the monasteries and to a monk whose name was Bede. He must have been one of the busiest of people, as this monastery was also a great school. There were six hundred monks, and no one knows how many other men who came there to study. Bede helped to teach these men; he performed all the religious duties of a monk, and he also shared in the work of the farm. With all this work, he found time to write much poetry, and many volumes about science, music, and medicine. At length the king of Northumbria asked him if he would not write a history of the church in England, and so it came about that he wrote the “Ecclesiastical History.” It is almost the only book that tells us about the early days of Britain, but from it we have to select what is probably true, and what was only hearsay among a people who were ready to believe anything, if it was only wonderful enough.

As Latin was the language of the church and of the monastery, Bede naturally wrote in Latin; but he wished to put the Bible into English so that the uneducated people might understand it. He worked on this translation till the last day of his life, dictating the Gospel of Saint John to one of his pupils. At last when evening came he closed his eyes in weariness. The young man said:—

“There is one sentence to write, dear master.”

“Take your pen and write quickly,” said Bede.

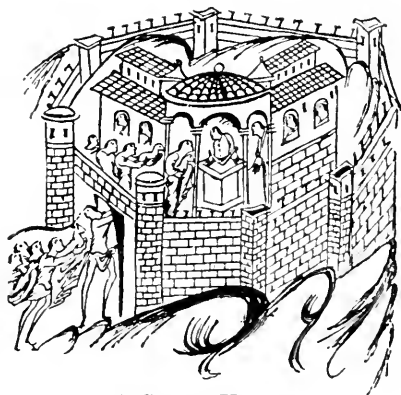
“Now it is finished,” said the pupil.

“Yes, it is finished,” said Bede. He chanted a few words of praise to God and closed his eyes. This pupil is the one that tells us the story, and we may believe it to be true. It is a great pity that the translation has been lost, for it was the first piece of prose that was written in England.

**17. The invasions of the Danes.**—King Egbert had just forced the other Saxon kings to own him as their overlord, when an enemy appeared that threatened to ruin every Saxon kingdom in Britain. The land had been overrun, first by Romans, then by Saxons, and it began to



seem now as if foreigners were to sweep over it for the third time. These foreigners are usually spoken of as Danes, or Northmen, and included those who lived anywhere in the vicinity of the Baltic Sea. The Saxons and Danes were of the same race, but while the Saxons had become Christians, the Danes still worshipped the heathen gods; and while the Saxons had learned to live peaceably on the land, the Danes thought that nothing was so glorious as to set out in a war vessel with a company of wild, reckless followers, to go wherever the waves and the winds might bear them; to land upon any shore, no matter where; to destroy, burn, kill, fill their ship with treasure, with slaves, clothes, dried meat,—anything that they could seize,—and carry it all back to their own country, to show their prowess to those who had remained at home.



A SAXON HOUSE

King Egbert was able to drive these robbers away, and so was his son after him; but in the reigns of Egbert's grandsons, matters grew worse and worse, for the Danes came in great swarms. There would be an alarm from the east, but before the king could go to the rescue, another alarm would come from the south. Houses were burned, people tortured or killed or carried away as slaves. If a man planted a field of grain, he had little hope of being able to reap it. The Danes hated the English for giving up the old gods, Woden and Thor, and they delighted in killing the monks and in robbing and burning the churches and monasteries. Everything that was made of gold or of silver was seized by the robbers. The precious manuscripts were of no value to them, and they took special care to burn every one that

they could find, because they believed that the mysterious letters were magical signs that would work them harm if they were not destroyed. So great was the fear of the Danes that in many places this prayer was added to the church Litany: "From the fury of the Northmen, Good Lord, deliver us."

**18. The reign of Alfred the Great, 871-901.**—The youngest of Egbert's grandsons, who was named Alfred, was only twenty-two years of age when he became king. He was a great favourite among his people, but they were too wretched to have any rejoicing when he came to the throne.

Faster and faster came the Danes. Alfred fought them bravely, but their forces were overwhelming. The whole land was overrun, and Alfred could no longer hold the throne. But he had no idea of abandoning his country. After suffering a severe defeat, he withdrew to a marshy island called Athelney, in Somersetshire, and waited, training his men and planning how to get the better of the enemy.

After a time, when Alfred felt that his army was ready, he attacked the Danes at Ethandune, in Wiltshire, and won a decisive victory. The Danes were now ready for peace, and at Wedmore, in 878, agreed to acknowledge Alfred as their overlord, to be baptized as Christians, and to remain in the north-eastern part of England. They were also to give hostages and were to become peaceful farmers. These promises they faithfully kept. The region given over to the Danes was known as the Danelaw, as there they enforced their own laws.

The Danes, however, still continued to pour into England. Alfred was wise enough to see that the only way to prevent these constant invasions was to meet his enemies on the sea. Accordingly, he built a fleet of strong, swift ships, with which he attacked the Danes and defeated them. Then he constructed a line of forts along the sea-coast, and organized his army so that he would have on hand at all times a sufficient force to meet any danger that might threaten. The Danes finally saw that they were neither strong enough nor skilful enough to overcome the English king, and they left him in peace.

Alfred now had leisure to turn his attention to the improvement of his kingdom. He rebuilt the churches that had been burned by the Danes, and erected others. He founded monasteries and schools, and invited scholars from other countries to come to England to teach his people. He translated Bede's "Ecclesiastical History" and several other works into English, in order that the young people of the country might learn to read their native language. He began the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," a record of the chief events that had happened in England from the earliest times. The monks had charge of this book, and whenever anything of importance happened in the kingdom, they wrote the story. This writing was kept up for two hundred and fifty years after Alfred's death.

Alfred also improved the laws and enforced them severely but justly. He collected the best of the Saxon laws and added to them the Ten Commandments. So great was Alfred's reputation in after time as a

stern and upright king, that the story was told that he hanged one judge for condemning to death a man who had been convicted by nine jurors instead of twelve, and that he hanged another judge who convicted a man when the jury were in doubt. Every crime had its punishment, and generally the punishment was a money payment by the family of the wrong-doer to the family of the man injured. "If a man strike another man's ear off,



let him give thirty shillings to boot. If the arm be broken above the elbow, there shall be fifteen shillings to boot. If the thumb be struck off, for that shall be thirty shillings to boot."

King Alfred died in 901. He had saved his land from the Danes, he had begun the English navy, he had given England a just code of laws, he had built churches and monasteries, had opened schools, and translated books. No other king in the history of the world has ever done so much for his country. He has well been called Alfred the Great.

**19. The successors of Alfred.**—The kings who succeeded Alfred wisely followed his policy of maintaining a strong fleet and garrisons of soldiers in forts along the coast. There was no serious outbreak among the Danes in England, or invasions from Denmark, until after the death of Edgar in 975. Edgar was a strong king, and he had a wise counsellor in Dunstan, the Archbishop of Canterbury. Dunstan gave to the Danes who lived in England local rulers of their own blood and allowed them to enjoy their own laws, thus gaining their good-will and friendship. He followed the example of Alfred in bringing to England scholars from other lands to teach in the schools. Under his direction, also, a standard system of weights and measures was established.

**20. The Danish kings of England.**—Ethelred, the younger of Edgar's two sons, became king in 979. Ethelred, who was called the Unready, or Uncounselled, reigned thirty-seven years, and before he died a Danish king sat on the throne of England. The earls of the northern provinces and the Danish chiefs in England rebelled. Pirates ravaged the coasts. In 982 the kings of Norway and Denmark came with a great swarm of Northmen to plunder England. Vast sums of money, raised by a tax on the land called the Danegeld, were paid by Ethelred to induce the Northmen to withdraw. They took the money, but became more insolent and warlike than before. At last Ethelred ordered a general massacre of Danes throughout the kingdom on St. Brice's Day,

November 13th, 1002. The unsuspecting people were killed by thousands. They crowded into the churches and were slain around the altars. Among the victims was Gunhilda, the Danish king's sister, who had become a Christian and had married in England.

King Sweyn vowed to be avenged for his sister's death, and entered the river Humber with a great army. He marched southwards, and city after city fell before him. Finally London surrendered, Ethelred fled to France, and Sweyn was made king of England. But Sweyn soon died, and Ethelred returned. Then Ethelred too died, and his eldest son, Edmund Ironside, was murdered. In 1016 Canute, Sweyn's son, became king of all England, after fighting the Saxons for several years.

Canute exiled or killed the Englishmen who had any claim to the crown or who were likely to oppose him; but after he was safely on the throne, he became a king of whom the English were very proud. He was kind and just; he rewarded right and punished wrong; and he was willing to suffer when he himself had acted unjustly. In the government of England, he seemed to prefer Englishmen to Danes in offices. On one occasion, when he went on a visit to Denmark, he left an Englishman, Godwin, Earl of Wessex, to rule the country during his absence. Actions such as this endeared him to his subjects in England. Canute governed England in peace for eighteen years.

Of course so upright a king was praised on every hand, and it is a wonder that he did not become selfish and arrogant. There is a story that his courtiers told him he was lord of land and sea, and even the waves would obey him. To teach them a lesson, he had his royal chair placed on the beach when the tide was rising. Then he said: "Ocean, this is my is'land, and you, too, are only a part of



KING CANUTE

my domain. I command you not to wet even the border of my robe." Nearer and nearer came the waves, while around the king's chair stood the courtiers, wondering what would happen, and fearing lest their ruler should punish them for their flattery. At last a wave broke upon the sacred person of the king. Then he turned to his courtiers and said gently: "Do not forget that the power of kings is a small matter. He who is King of kings and Lord of lords, He is the One whom the earth and the sea and the heavens obey."

When Canute died in 1035, the people of England were sincerely sorry, especially as his sons, Harold and Hardicanute, were not worthy of so good a father. They reigned, however, for a few years, first one son and then the other, but the English were more and more displeased with their injustice and cruelty, and when they died, no one mourned. They were the last kings that ruled over both England and Denmark.

**21. The English kings restored.**—The English now began to wish to have an Englishman again on the throne, and they chose Edward, the son of Ethelred the Unready. This Edward was a middle-aged man, and, since he had been brought up in France, where he had fled for refuge, it is probable that he could speak little English; but as he was a good man and a descendant of the royal line, the English invited him to be their king, and when he came to them, they gave him a hearty welcome.

**22. Government under the Saxons.**—The England of this period was for the most part a land of small country villages, the old "tuns" or townships, whose people lived by tilling the soil. Each man had his strip of the arable land while the pasture and waste land about the village was held in common. But the village was no longer the community of independent freemen described by Tacitus. Now, the little wooden houses of the tillers of the soil, afterwards called "villeins," were grouped about the larger house of the chief man, later known as the lord of the manor. To him they owed certain services and from him they received protection. These villages or manors were grouped

into larger divisions called "hundreds," probably because they had in early times about a hundred freemen capable of serving in war or as jurors in the courts. Many hundreds made up a shire. Each shire had its shire court presided over by an alderman, and each had its "shire-reeve" or sheriff who was the king's representative and watched over his interests. Over all were the king and the Witenagemot, or Witan. The king's authority varied greatly according to the personal ability of the man who held the office. He was, in general, the law-giver, the leader of the army, and the judge. His power in the state grew as the extent of his dominions increased. In all important matters, he took the advice of the Witenagemot, or meeting of the wise men, an assembly made up of the chief officers of the king's court, the bishops and abbots of the church, and the aldermen of the shires. With the consent of the freeholders of the country, this assembly passed laws, voted money, and on the death of the king chose his successor, though up to this time they had always chosen some member of the royal family. The Witenagemot was the most important governing body in England.

### SUMMARY

At the request of the Britons, the Saxons drove away the barbarians of the north. Soon they killed or expelled the Britons also and seized the land for themselves. They finally accepted Christianity, but the rapid spread of civilization was arrested by the ravages of the Danes. Alfred the Great restored the land to peace and safety, but after his death the Danish power increased, so that, for a time, England was ruled by Danish kings. The first literature composed on English soil was the work of Cædmon, Bede, and Alfred the Great.

## CHAPTER III

### THE NORMANS

1066—1154

#### 1. WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR, 1066-1087

**23. The home of the Normans in France.**—About the time of Alfred the Great, a bold sea-rover from Norway, named Rolf, succeeded in winning from the king of France a strip of land around the mouth of the Seine River. Here he settled with thousands of his Northmen, who were of the same blood as the Saxons and the Danes. Because their old home was Norway, these people called their new home Normandy and themselves Normans. Rolf married a French princess and was baptized a Christian. His people also became Christians, intermarried with the French, and adopted the French language. They were quick to yield to the softening influences of French civilization, and within a hundred years they had become Frenchmen in language, customs, and religion.

**24. Edward's plan to bequeath his crown.**—When, in 1042, Edward came to the throne of England he brought with him from Normandy, where he had spent his youth, a great crowd of Norman favourites and priests, to whom he gave the best places in the government and the church. He carried his liking for the Normans so far that he even promised to give, at his death, his crown to William, Duke of Normandy. Edward was a very pious man, so pious indeed, that he was afterwards called "the Confessor," but he did not rule England for the benefit of the English, nor, when he made his promise to William, was he thinking of the welfare of his English subjects.



Edward died in 1036, and Harold, a son of Earl Godwin, and the most powerful nobleman in the kingdom, was elected by the Witan to succeed him. It is said that Harold had once been shipwrecked on the coast of Normandy, and that he had been taken to Duke William's court, where he was treated as an honoured guest. When he came to depart, he was compelled to swear on the bones of some Norman saints that, when Edward died, he would support the claims of William to the throne of England. Neither Edward nor Harold, however, had any right to give away the throne, because only the Witan could choose the king.

**25. William prepares to invade England.**—In addition to the promise of Edward and the forced oath of Harold, William claimed the throne of England as the inheritance of his wife, Matilda, who was a descendant of Alfred. He obtained from the Pope, on the ground that Harold had been false to his oath, a decree declaring the new king to be a usurper, and himself the rightful heir. With some difficulty he persuaded the Norman barons to assist him in the enterprise. He called also to his standard adventurers from other parts of Europe, promising them large rewards. Within six months, a huge army, with, it is said, seven hundred ships, was ready for the invasion of England.



A NORMAN  
KNIGHT

**23. The battle of Stamford Bridge.**—Harold heard of William's plans and gathered an army to resist the invasion. But a new danger threatened his kingdom from the north. His brother, Tostig, who had been driven from his earldom of Northumberland on account of his bad government and cruelty, had persuaded Harold Hardrada, king of Norway, to assist him in an attack on England. With a large army, Tostig and Harold Hardrada landed in Yorkshire and captured the city of York. King Harold at once marched

northwards and met the invading army at Stamford Bridge. He was quite willing to make peace with his brother, and promised him everything he wished except the throne, but he refused to give Hardrada anything in England except "seven feet of earth for a grave, or as much more as he is taller than other men." Tostig refused to make peace, and a bloody battle followed, in which both Tostig and Harold Hardrada were killed and their army put to the sword. While Harold was feasting at York in honour of this great victory, he received news that Duke William had landed at Pevensey, near the town of Hastings, in the south.

**27. The battle of Hastings, or Senlac, 1066.**—Harold immediately summoned troops from all over the kingdom to repel the invaders, and at once marched to London. But the levies were slow in arriving, none, indeed, coming from the north, and he determined not to delay further. Six days after he reached London, he took up his position on Senlac Hill, about seven miles from Hastings, near which the Norman forces had strongly entrenched themselves. This hill was guarded with stout palisades. His men were ordered to stand firm behind their shield-wall, and to repel the attacks of the enemy.

The Norman archers opened the battle, and then the Norman knights advanced to the attack. They could not break through the English defences, behind which, with spear and axe, the stout warriors cut down every Norman who was bold enough to enter. For more than six hours the English repelled the repeated charges of the enemy. At length they rushed out of their fort to pursue some fleeing troops. William rallied his men, and, facing about, they slaughtered their pursuers. The duke himself led a fierce charge against the king's standard, around which were gathered the flower of the English. They stood firm. William then feigned retreat; the undisciplined English troops were again drawn into a pursuit, and great numbers of them were cut down by the Norman horsemen. Towards sunset, William gave the command, "Shoot upwards, Norman archers, that the arrows may fall upon their faces!" One of the descending

shafts entered the eye of the English king. The Norman knights rushed towards the royal standard, for while that waved the English would never retreat. In the deadly struggle about the flag Harold fell. His own guard would take no quarter and died to a man in his defence; but the rest of the army fled, and the Norman duke had won the battle of Hastings and the kingdom of England.

**28. William is elected king.**—The victory at Hastings gave William control of the south of England, but it did not give him the crown. He was soon able to arrange his forces in such a way that London was cut off from the north, and therefore at his mercy. The Witan, although they had determined to resist the conqueror with all their power, now felt that the struggle would be hopeless. Two months after the battle on the Hill of Senlac, they offered the crown to William. He accepted it as a lawfully chosen king, and after a solemn religious service in Westminster Abbey, was crowned on Christmas Day. It was an old Saxon custom that, when the crown was placed upon the king's head, the people should raise a shout as a sign of their willingness to submit to his rule. The English shout so startled the Norman soldiers that they rushed on the crowd, and the coronation ceremony ended in riot and bloodshed.



WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

From his great seal

**29. The last stand of the English.**—The estates of the English who fought at Hastings had been seized by the king; his army also had taken a vast amount of plunder before the coronation. But this was too little to satisfy the greed of the Normans, or to carry out the promises of the king to his followers. William claimed to be an Eng-

lish king, the lawful successor of Edward, and it would not do for a king to plunder his own people. But frequent revolts of the English soon gave him an excuse.

A few months after his coronation, William returned to Normandy. Thereupon the Norman soldiers began to rob and abuse the English people. When the people appealed to the Norman officers, they were refused protection and justice. They rose in rebellion and began to attack the garrisons. Soon after this outbreak, William returned to England, determined to crush the English, who, he declared, could not be won by kindness.

One after another the rebellious districts were conquered, but not without great difficulty. On one occasion the English called in the help of the Danes, and captured York, where they killed three thousand Norman soldiers. For this William took a terrible revenge. He bribed the Danes to retire and then laid waste the country from the Humber to the Tees. His orders were that every living thing, men, women, children, and cattle, should be slain; that all crops and buildings should be burned; and that farming tools should be broken, so that there might be no means of supporting life. Of the people who escaped to the moors and mountains, it is said a hundred thousand died of starvation. So thoroughly was the work done, that the country north of the Humber remained a desert for fifty years.

For years afterwards, the English loved to honour the name of one of their number who had made the most determined stand against William. This was Hereward the Wake, "the last of the English," as he is called. He had taken refuge with his followers on the island of Ely, which was separated from the mainland by two miles of marsh. William was compelled to build a solid road through the marsh in order to reach the island, and even then it was with difficulty that he forced the English to surrender. Hereward escaped across the swamps and hid in the woods. The king, who admired a brave warrior, offered to pardon him and to restore his estates. Hereward swore allegiance to William and was faithful to him for the rest of his life.

**30. The introduction of the Feudal System.**—Peace now reigned in England; the English were completely vanquished. William declared the property of all those who had fought against him to be forfeited, and thus became the owner of nearly the whole of England. He allowed the English thanes to keep some small estates, but the greater part of the land he divided among his own followers. In this way about twenty thousand Normans became landholders in England.

In giving grants of land in England to his followers, William introduced what is known as the *Feudal System*, a method of holding land then quite common on the continent. Under this system all land belonged to the king, and such of his territory as he did not wish for his own use, he granted to barons or lords. These barons granted smaller portions to knights, who had under them villeins, or serfs, who tilled the soil. In return for his lands the baron promised to bring, when called upon, a certain number of knights to fight for the king, and in addition to make certain money payments. The baron granted his lands to knights on much the same terms, and while the baron became a vassal to the king, the knight in turn became a vassal to the baron.

When a baron received a grant of land he had to kneel before the king bareheaded, and place his hands in those of his sovereign. He then took a solemn oath to be a true and faithful subject. "I will be your man with life and limb, and I will keep my faith and loyalty to you for life and death." This ceremony was called *paying homage*, and was required by the king from every baron, and by each baron from his knights. In order that the barons' vassals might not feel more strongly bound to their immediate lords than to their sovereign, they were compelled to take an oath of allegiance to the king also. They were first sworn to be loyal to the king, and next to him they must obey the lords upon whose estates they lived. In addition to service in war, a baron was bound to pay money to the king upon certain specified occasions: to redeem the king from bondage if he were captured in war; to bear the expense of

making the king's eldest son a knight; to provide a marriage portion for the king's eldest daughter, and to pay a special tax when he first obtained his lands, whether by inheritance or by purchase. If the baron died leaving young children, the king was their guardian, and, until they became of age, he could claim all the profits from the estate. The baron's orphan daughter could marry only with the king's consent, and he usually gave her hand to the suitor who could repay the favour with a handsome gift.

**31. William's government.**—After William had subdued the English, he tried to rule the country justly and well. He was stern, but a lover of peace. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" tells us that "he made such good peace in the land that a man that was good for aught might travel over England with his bosom full of gold without molestation." He had a high regard for religion, and he never appointed ignorant or wicked men to high positions in the church. Lanfranc, for example, one of the most learned and pure-minded men in Europe, he made Archbishop of Canterbury. His Council was composed of the great landowners—that is, of the higher clergy and the barons of the realm. Three times each year they were summoned to meet the king to consult with him about the government of the country, and to assist in the administration of justice. Archbishops, bishops, earls, and barons came from all over England, and the king was able to learn everything of importance concerning the state of the kingdom. This body, the successor of the Witan, became known as the "Great Council." It was the aim of William to continue as far as possible the English institutions and laws, for he wished to be considered, not as a conqueror, but as the rightful successor of Edward.

**32. The grievances of the English.**—While the English admitted that William was just, and that he gave peace to the land, he did several things that seemed to them most tyrannical. Even in Edward's reign many of the chief offices in church and state had been held by Frenchmen, and now under William there was hardly an Englishman in a high position anywhere in the land. This was very hard

to bear, especially as the Norman masters looked upon the English as their inferiors and often treated them cruelly and insolently.

These Normans who were in power were allowed to build stone castles with walls enormously thick, so that they might be safe against any attack of the natives. The strongest part of these castles was called the tower, or keep, and here the Norman and his family lived. On the main floor was the hall, or general living-room. The windows were small, and the castle was often a cold, damp place; but in the hall there were great cheery fires, there was tapestry on the walls, and here the family were very comfortable. Down below the hall were gloomy dungeons, where a noble might throw any one who had offended him and was less strong than he. Around the tower was a courtyard, shut in by a thick wall with a moat and drawbridge and a heavy porteullis that could be dropped in a moment, if there was not time to close the gate. Of the strong castles which William himself built in the principal cities, the most famous is the Tower of London.

Three of the changes introduced by William made the English especially angry. One was the enforcement of the Curfew Law. The name comes from the French *courrefeu*, to cover the fire, and the law required that at eight o'clock in winter and at sunset in summer, every fire should be covered and every light put out. This was an old custom in France to prevent the burning of houses, but it had never been enforced in England, and the people felt that it was nothing but tyranny.

Another change that made the English angry was the establishing of the New Forest. William was very fond of the chase, and inclosed, as a private hunting-ground, an immense tract of land not far from his palace in Winchester. He ordered all buildings within the limits of the forest to be destroyed, and left the people to find homes as best they could. That he had done this merely for his own pleasure made it all the harder to bear. The king also decreed the severest penalties if a man shot a deer in the Forest, or even if he was found there with a bow and arrow.

But, after all, what most enraged the helpless English was that William ordered to be made a complete record of the people and the property in the kingdom. This he did, so that he might know how to apportion the taxes. The people called this record the Domesday Book, because, they said, what was once written in it was as final as the day of doom. To compile this, William sent men throughout the kingdom to find out just how much property each man had. The people were indignant, not only because they thought that their taxes would be increased if William knew everything that they owned, but also because it seemed to them a great impertinence for the officers of the king to come into their houses and demand to know just what they possessed. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" says bitterly: "It is shameful to relate that which he thought it no shame to do. So very narrowly did he cause the survey to be made that there was not an ox or a cow or a pig passed by that was not set down in the accounts, and then all these writings were brought to him." The record shows that the population at this time was about two millions.

**33. The death of William.**—William reigned for twenty-one years. His eldest son, Robert, had rebelled against him, and had given him a great deal of trouble, but William left him his French dominions. To Henry, the youngest son, he left five thousand pounds in silver; and on behalf of William Rufus, or William the Red, his second son, he sent, through Archbishop Lanfranc, a letter recommending that the English should choose him for their king.

### SUMMARY

In 1066 William, Duke of Normandy, a relative of the late Saxon king, won the crown at the battle of Hastings in which Harold, the king chosen by the English, was slain. William rewarded his followers with English lands and English offices. The building of stone castles began. Several of William's laws aroused the indignation of his new subjects, but the "Chronicle" admits that he was just, though severe. The Conquest brought to England the impulse of the bold Norman spirit, the greater refinement of the French language, and a strong government which gave peace to the land and did much to make a united nation.



## 2. WILLIAM II. 1087-1100

**34. The barons rebel against the king.**—Two weeks after the death of William the Conqueror, William Rufus was crowned king of England. There was no opposition to his coronation, supported as he was by the authority of Lanfranc and the church. But in a few months a conspiracy was formed among the barons to dethrone the new king, and to put his brother Robert in his place. Many of the barons held land both in England and in Normandy, and they did not wish to pay homage to two overlords. In the event of war between the brothers, they would be forced to choose on which side they would fight, and so would be in danger of losing their land in either the one country or the other. The barons also felt that under William they would be kept in subjection, while under Robert they would be able to do very much as they pleased. The conspiracy spread, and before long nearly every baron in England, with his vassals, was in arms against the king.

William, on his part, had no intention of giving up his crown. He had the powerful support of the church, and he now called on the English, who formed the great mass of the nation, to come to his aid. The English were ready to support him and rallied to his side. Against the united power of the king, the church, and the English, the barons were powerless. The rebellion lasted only a few months. A few of the leaders were punished, but the greater number were pardoned by the king.

**35. Oppressive rule of William.**—The chief object of William Rufus during his reign seems to have been to extort as much money as he could from the barons, the church, and the people. The barons were compelled to pay to the utmost the feudal dues, while the people were oppressed with so heavy taxes that many of them died of starvation. The church, too, felt the heavy hand of the king. He not only seized upon church property, but, what was very much worse, he gave her abbacies and bishoprics only to men who would pay him well.

When Lanfranc died, William left the archbishopric vacant, so that he might enjoy the rich revenues of the see. It happened, however, that he was taken seriously ill, and, in the fear of death, he appointed Anselm, a learned and pious monk, to the vacant office. When he recovered, he was so angry to think that he had given up the great revenues of Canterbury, that he opposed the new archbishop in almost everything he undertook. Anselm finally withdrew from England and did not return until the king was dead.

The money wrung from the kingdom by extortion and injustice was used in large part by William to maintain a small army of mercenary soldiers, who were ready to obey his commands, however ruthless these might be. It is probable that there would have been an attempt to dethrone him, but that the barons felt that they would not have the support of the English. The English, on their part, were afraid that if William were driven out of the country, the barons would be strong enough to place Robert on the throne. They preferred William as the lesser of two evils. "The land could only suffer and wait, and at last rejoice that the reign was no longer."

William had never given up the idea of possessing Normandy. Robert was careless and lavish, and once, when he wanted money, he had willingly sold a strip of Norman territory to his brother. Finally, Robert wished to go on a crusade. The sale of a part of his land would not suffice, and, in order to procure the ten thousand pounds that was needed, he promised William all the revenues of Normandy for the next five years.

**36. The crusades.**—The crusades were expeditions undertaken by various Christian nations against the Saracens, who ruled in the Holy Land. It had long been regarded as a deed of great merit to go on a pilgrimage to Rome, and of even greater to press on to Jerusalem. Aside from the religious benefits that people who became pilgrims thought they would obtain, there was a great fascination about such a journey. The travellers would see strange countries and meet with strange people. There would be many

opportunities to win fame and fortune, and the thought of possible dangers only added to the charm of the pilgrimage. It is no wonder that rich and poor, good and bad, were eager to take part in these wonderful expeditions.

While the Arabs ruled the Holy Land, pilgrims were protected and welcomed because they brought so much money to Jerusalem; but at last the Saracens conquered the country, and they imprisoned the pilgrims and tortured them, or even murdered them. The whole Christian church felt that something should be done. In 1095, a Frenchman, called Peter the Hermit, returned from a pilgrimage. He was an eloquent man, and when he told how much the pilgrims had to suffer and how wicked he thought it that the Holy Land should be in the hands of men who hated the Christians, thousands of people resolved to try to take Palestine from the Saracens. They called such an expedition a *crusade*, because a red cross was fastened to their clothes, and the Latin word for *cross* is *crux*.

For a duke like Robert to go on a crusade meant more than putting on his armour, mounting his horse, and galloping away. There must be arms and horses and provisions, not only for himself, but for the servants and dependents who went with him. There must be money for countless expenses along the way, for alms-giving and for generous presents to churches and shrines. A duke might well need to pawn his duchy to obtain money to go on such an expedition. Robert pawned his and went on a crusade in 1095; for five years William collected the taxes of Normandy.



A CRUSADING KNIGHT

**37. The death of William.**—After a hunt in the New Forest, William was found dead, with an arrow in his breast. It was never known who shot the arrow. Some said it was shot at a stag and struck the king by accident. Others whispered that the king had been murdered by some revengeful Englishman, whose home had been destroyed in the making of the New Forest.

### SUMMARY

William Rufus became king and was supported by the English and the clergy, though opposed by the barons. Fearing rebellions, he robbed the barons, plundered the church, and oppressed the people in order to maintain a large standing army. He advanced money for Duke Robert's crusade, and received in return the taxes of Normandy for five years. He was killed in the New Forest.

### 3. HENRY I. 1100–1135

**38. Henry I becomes king.**—When William Rufus was shot in the New Forest, his brother Henry, who seems to have been one of the hunting party, galloped away to Winchester, as fast as his horse could carry him, in order to secure the royal treasury. If Robert had been on the spot, it is probable that the Norman barons would have stood by him, and that there might have been much trouble; but Robert had not yet returned from his crusade, and in a few days Henry was crowned. The English were glad to have him for king rather than his brother, for Henry was born in England, and had learned to speak English. Then, too, whenever they thought of Robert, they remembered that he was Duke of Normandy, and a friend of the Norman barons who had oppressed them.

In order to secure the support of the nation for himself and to prevent any attempt to place Robert on the throne, Henry issued a "Charter of Liberties." In this charter the king bound himself to respect the property of the church. He promised not to abuse his feudal rights over the barons, and in turn forbade the barons to extort money from their

tenants. Finally, he promised to restore to the nation at large the old English law as William the Conqueror had amended it. Henry also pleased the people by his marriage with Matilda, the daughter of the king of Scotland, who was descended through her mother from Alfred the Great. The people now felt that they had ruling over them at last an English king and queen. The king further delighted his subjects by driving from the court the unworthy favourites of William and by recalling Anselm to his archbishopric.

**39. The contest for Normandy.**—The year following the coronation of Henry, Robert returned to Normandy and laid claim to the throne of England. Henry, on his part, was determined to obtain Normandy. The barons in both countries preferred Robert, because he was thoughtless and careless and lavish, and they believed that, with him for a ruler, they could do exactly as they chose. The church and the people supported Henry, and though Robert invaded England, a treaty was made by which he gave up his claim to the throne and Henry gave his brother three thousand marks a year and a strip of land adjoining Normandy.

There were still strong friends of Robert's in England, and although the brothers had agreed that neither should punish the adherents of the other, Henry at once showed that he had no idea of keeping the compact, and many of them fled to Normandy. It had also been agreed that neither country should receive the fugitives of the other; so when Robert received these men and gave them land and money, Henry crossed the Channel to take possession of Normandy. One town after another surrendered, and at last came the battle of Tenchebrai. Henry was the victor, and now, after he had been six years on the throne of England, Normandy was in his hands and Robert was a captive. A prisoner Robert remained for twenty-eight years, and in prison he died.

**40. Henry's reforms.**—As soon as Henry felt safe on his throne he did not hesitate to break many of the promises he had made in his charter. But he would allow no one else to break the laws. During his reign crime was severely

punished; it was said, "No man durst misdo against another in Henry's time." At one sitting of a court, forty-four robbers were hanged. He would not allow any coin to be made less than legal value, and any coiner who dared to do this had his hands struck off or his eyes put out. He would not allow any of his lords to take the people's property unjustly, nor would he permit his officers to take more than a certain quantity of provisions from the people without paying for them. Although he made the lives of his subjects miserable by his severe taxation, yet he levied these taxes regularly and by a fixed system. All taxes and fines were brought twice a year and paid to a special officer who received the money on a table divided into squares like a **chequer-board**. This is the origin of the Court of Exchequer.

**41. Henry's dispute with the church.**—The question of the higher appointments in the church was a cause of



FEMALE COSTUME, TIME OF  
HENRY I

dispute between Henry and the Pope. The estates of the clergy were held on the same conditions as the barons held their estates. Each bishop and abbot must do homage to the king, furnish soldiers, and pay the customary taxes. These dignitaries were selected by the king, though by church law they were supposed to be elected by the priests or monks of the cathedral, church, or abbey. William, however, had so

shamefully abused this power, that the Pope was trying to take away from the king the appointment and control of all church officers. Anselm refused to do homage to Henry, and a dispute arose which was finally settled by giving to the Pope the right of investing the bishops, while Henry reserved the right of exacting military service and of

supervising their election by the lower clergy. The king thus had the power of preventing the election of an enemy, while the Pope could exclude an incompetent or immoral man by refusing to install him in office.

**42. The death of Henry.**—Henry's only son, William, was drowned while crossing from Normandy to England. The ship put off at midnight with a gay company on board, among whom were Prince William and his sister. The sailors had drunk too much wine, and ran the ship on a rock. She sank almost immediately, and all were drowned except a poor butcher of Rouen, who lived to tell the story of the wreck. It is said that Henry never smiled after hearing of his son's death.

Robert of Normandy had died in prison, where Henry had placed him; Prince William was dead, and the disappointed old king planned to leave his crown to his daughter, Matilda, who had married Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, one of the most important provinces of France. The barons swore a solemn oath to support her claims, but they did it unwillingly, because it seemed strange to have a sovereign who could not lead them in war. In the midst of his plans for the succession to the throne, Henry died. His death was followed by anarchy.

### SUMMARY

Henry's prompt action in seizing the crown forestalled the opposition which might have arisen from the barons on behalf of his brother. He was English by birth, and his wife was of English descent. Except for his severe taxation, he ruled so as to please his subjects. He issued a charter of liberties, punished dishonest coiners, and regulated the payment of taxes. By the battle of Tenchebrai, Normandy fell into his hands. Shortly before his death, he secured a promise from the barons that they would support the claims of his daughter Matilda to the throne.

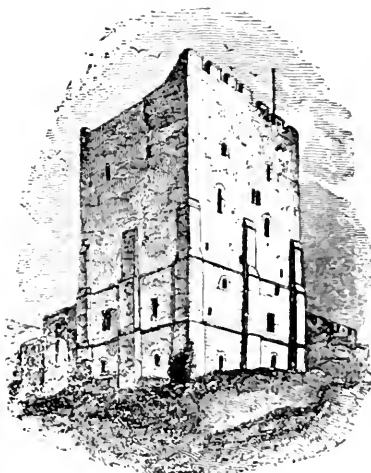
### 4. STEPHEN. 1135 -1154

**43. Accession of Stephen.**—Matilda had two sons, but they were not old enough to reign. Others who might

have a claim to the throne were three young men, sons of one of the daughters of William the Conqueror. These young men were in Normandy, and in the midst of the general lawlessness that followed the death of Henry, Stephen, the second son, made his way to London, and was received by the Londoners as their king.

Three weeks after Henry's death Stephen was crowned, and at once he gave the people two excellent charters, promising to treat them fairly and to do his best to be a good ruler. If he had been as strong as he was agreeable, England

would have been saved many years of trouble, but his reign was nothing but turmoil from beginning to end. Matilda would not abandon her claim to the crown, and Stephen was neither powerful nor wise enough to oppose her successfully.



PORCHESTER CASTLE, BUILT  
ABOUT 1150

**44. Behaviour of the English barons.**—The barons supported now one and now the other. In fact, they did not care much who was on the throne, if they were only free to do what they chose. More and more

castles were built, as Stephen was too weak to prevent their erection. Every baron was a king over the district around him, and most of these barons were tyrants. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," which stops with the reign of Stephen, says, "Every rich man built castles and defended them against all, and they filled the land with castles. They greatly oppressed the wretched people by making them work at these castles, and when the castles were finished, they filled them with devils

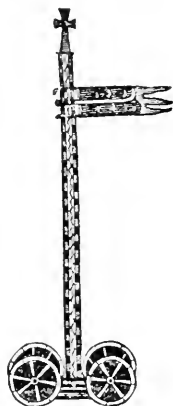


and evil men. Then they took those whom they suspected to have any goods, by night and by day, seizing both men and women, and put them in prison for their gold and silver, and tortured them with pains unspeakable, for never were any martyrs tormented as these were. They plundered and burned towns. Then was corn dear and flesh and cheese, for there was none in the land. They spared neither church nor churchyard, nor the lands of abbots or priests. It was said openly that Christ and his saints slept."

**45. Contest with Matilda.**—All this time Matilda was pressing her claims to the throne. Her uncle, David, King of Scotland, came to her assistance, and three times invaded England. The third time he was defeated by a brave priest, Thurstan, the old Archbishop of York, at the "Battle of the Standard." A tall cross mounted on a cart, and surrounded by the banners of Yorkshire saints, was taken into the field. At the foot of the cross the archbishop read prayers, and the English archers and the Norman knights pledged themselves to conquer or die. A furious attack of the Scots was repulsed, and David retreated, leaving twelve thousand men dead upon the field.

In one place after another the fighting went on for many years. At one time Stephen was taken prisoner, and Matilda ruled the country for a few months; but she was so proud and arrogant that the very barons that had most desired her for queen began to desert her. At another time she had a narrow escape from being captured, for Stephen's army surrounded the castle at Oxford in which she had taken refuge; but one day there was a heavy snowstorm, and that night Matilda and a few guards dressed themselves in white and slipped away silently over the snow and across the frozen Thames to a place of safety.

But the country was now worn out with fighting and both Matilda and Stephen were tired of the struggle, and ready for



THE STANDARD

peace. A treaty was signed at Wallingford, by which it was agreed that Stephen should rule as long as he lived, and that at his death Henry, son of Matilda and Geoffrey of Anjou, should receive the crown. How long this treaty would have been kept is a question, but the next year Stephen died and Henry became king.

**46. Three languages in England.**—During this period there were three languages used in England. Latin was used in the courts of justice and in the church service. French was spoken at the court of the king, and was looked upon as the language of polite society. English was spoken by the masses of the English people. The literary language was Latin. French romances and songs were brought from France, but an Englishman would have thought it very strange to write a book in any other language than Latin.

Though English authors wrote in Latin, the subject of their books was almost invariably the history of their country. It may be that while the selfishness of William Rufus and the weakness of Stephen had shown them that what was the loss of one part of the nation was the loss of all, the strong, firm rule of the Conqueror and of Henry had given them an idea of what a power a united country might become. At any rate, the men who wrote were thinking of their country and writing books about her. One of the most interesting of these writers was a Welshman, called Geoffrey of Monmouth, who wrote a "History of the British Kings." Not very much of this book is true, but many of the stories are very interesting.

**47. Mystery plays.**—Another result of the sufferings of the English people was a great desire to know more of religion. When they were so miserable, their only hope was that after they died they would be happy enough to make up for what they had borne on earth. Very few of them could read, and it was difficult for them to understand any but the simplest of sermons. As so few teachers knew how to speak simply, the poor people would have been left in great ignorance had it not been for the pictures in the churches and for the mystery plays.

These pictures represented scenes in Bible history or in the lives of good men, and the people could walk about the churches and learn the stories from the pictures. The mystery plays were scenes from Bible history and were acted by the priests. They were meant not for amusement, but for teaching. First, there were prayers; then the priests and their assistants acted out the story of Cain and Abel, or of the creation, or of building the ark. At Christmas they acted the appearance of the angels to the shepherds, and at Easter they acted the resurrection. By and by, so many people came to see the plays that the church was not large enough; and then the priests acted in the churchyard, putting up a high stage, or platform, so that people could see and hear better. When still more people wished to see, first the priests, and then guilds, or companies of tradesmen, drove about the city in great two-story wagons, stopping at certain places to act the play. The upper story of these wagons represented heaven, the lower one was earth, and below the earth was the abode of the evil spirits. The angels had golden hair and white robes, while Satan wore a hideous suit of leather, covered with black hair and feathers and ending in claws at the hands and feet. The actors did everything that they could to make the plays seem real to the people; for instance, when they acted the creation, they suddenly let loose all the birds and beasts that they could get together, as if the animals had just been created.

The people went to see the mystery plays as reverently as they went to church; and from them they gained a familiarity with much of the Bible story that they could hardly have obtained in any other way.

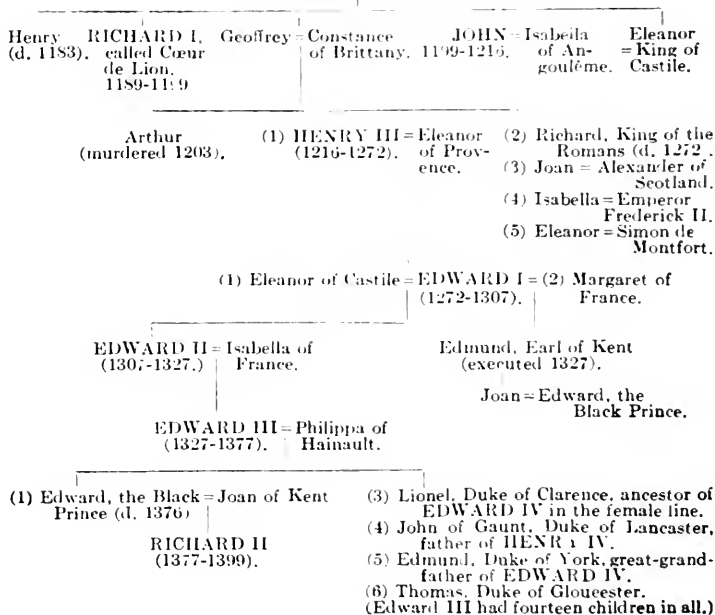
### SUMMARY

Henry's determination that his daughter should rule was the cause of years of strife between her party and that of Stephen, Henry's nephew. During most of this time, Stephen was nominally king, but his rule was so inefficient that both England and Normandy were in great disorder. Finally, a compromise was made; Stephen was to reign as long as he lived, but was to be succeeded by Matilda's son, Henry. Bad as so weak a government was, its very lawlessness brought about a strong desire for peace and a firm rule. The English thought more of their

country as a whole, and several authors began to write the history of the land. Three languages were still used in England. Religious instruction was given to the people by means of pictures and mystery plays.

## THE ANGEVIN OR PLANTAGENET KINGS OF ENGLAND

HENRY II = Eleanor of Aquitaine



## CHAPTER IV

### THE ANGEVINS, OR PLANTAGENETS

1154-1399

#### 1. HENRY II. 1154-1189

48. **The first Angevin king.**—The father of Henry II was Geoffrey of Anjou, and from his name, Henry and his descendants are called the Angevins. Another name, or nickname, that of "Plantagenet," was given them because Geoffrey was accustomed to wear in his cap a sprig of the yellow-blossomed broom plant, whose French name is *plante-g  net*. When Henry came to the throne, he ruled over more territory than any previous king of England. He had received wide domains in France from his father and his mother and with his wife; and as these territories were close together, the whole western half of that country was under his control, in addition to all of England.



HENRY II

When Stephen died, Henry was in Normandy, and it was six weeks before the people had a chance to see their new ruler. When they did see him, they were well pleased. He was young, brave, and determined. His body was like iron, and he could bear any amount of fatigue. It was a hard undertaking to bring order to the kingdom after years of lawlessness, but Henry set about his task resolutely at the very beginning of his reign.

49. **Henry's reforms.**—England was in a wretched condition. During the reign of Stephen, as has been said, the barons, in disregard of the law, had built for themselves castles, and, securely protected by the strong walls, had cruelly oppressed the people. As Henry was determined to make all men obey the law, the first thing for him to do was to tear down these castles; and tear them down he did, several hundred of them. Without a castle, a baron had very little more power than any

other rich man; the people rejoiced when they saw the forces of the king demolishing the strongholds that had caused so much suffering, and letting the light and air into the horrible dungeons where prisoners had endured such agonies.

Other reforms were introduced by Henry to lessen the power of the barons. Under the feudal system, every man who held land from the king was required to do military service. Henry was at war on the continent and required a large number



of soldiers. But the English barons were not willing to leave their own country in order to take part in a war which concerned only the French dominions of the crown, and, moreover, the king could not compel them either to serve or to provide soldiers for more than forty days in any one year. They were quite willing, therefore, to accept Henry's proposal that, instead of serving in person or providing soldiers, they should pay to the king

a tax called *scutage* or shield-money, that is, a sum sufficient to pay the hire of as many knights or soldiers as, under the feudal law, they were compelled to provide. By this means the king had at his command a large body of troops who would serve wherever and as long as he pleased, and the barons became less used to serving in war.

Henry weakened still further the power of the barons by arming the people. Every freeman was compelled to provide himself with armour and weapons according to his station. This was the old Anglo-Saxon system, which had enabled Harold to raise a large army in six days. That the king should thus put arms in the hands of all the freemen of England, showed that he did not intend to depend, for the maintenance of his power, either upon the barons or upon his own hired troops.

A court is a means of securing to every man that which rightfully belongs to him, and of fixing the punishment of those who break the laws. In the time of the Norman kings the county or shire court had become the most important. The chief lords of the country served as judges, and they were assisted by the king's sheriff, whose duty it was to see that justice was meted out to the offender. In the troubled times of the preceding reign, the barons had, in many places, taken the place of the king's sheriffs and had conducted the courts for their own benefit. Many of the unfortunate people who fell into their hands were fined, whether guilty or innocent, and the fine went to the baron instead of to the king. Henry put a stop to these evils by carrying out more fully a practice that his grandfather, Henry I, had begun. He divided the kingdom into circuits and appointed men, called "the king's judges," whose duty it was to go through the country hearing the suits of the people and punishing criminals. These judges, as representatives of the king, did not fear to enter the estates and castles of the proudest nobles in the land. The feudal courts held by the barons were restricted, and the people soon came to have the greatest respect for the circuit courts.

In early Saxon days, if a man wished to prove himself guiltless of a crime with which he was charged, he was compelled to swear to his own innocence, and to bring forward a number of his neighbours who would take a similar oath. If he could not procure such evidence, other means were resorted to for determining his guilt or innocence; he was required to plunge his arm into boiling water, or to carry a red-hot iron so many paces. If, after a certain number of days, the arm was well, or was healing healthily, the man was declared to be innocent, because it was thought that God had protected him. In the same belief that God would clear the innocent, the Normans had introduced the usage of requiring two men who had differed, to fight a duel. In addition to these methods, Henry revived or established an agency which we still use,—the grand jury. Wherever the king's judges held court, the sheriff would summon a number of men to form a jury. It was their duty to bring before the judges every person in their district who was accused of having committed a crime. As a further means of determining whether the accused was guilty or not, he was to be sent to the ordeal by cold water. This trial consisted in throwing the accused into a pond; if he floated without swimming, he was held guilty. In later times it became and still is the duty of a jury to pronounce an accused person guilty or innocent according to the evidence brought before them. Such a jury is called a trial jury.

**50. Relations of church and state.**—It had for some time been the custom in England for a clergyman, if accused of having done wrong, to be tried by the church courts, and not by the regular courts of justice. The penalties inflicted by the king's courts were very severe. The clergy did not approve of these cruel punishments, and protected as many people from them as possible. Henry was resolved that when it came to a question of keeping the law of the land, the clergy should not have any special privileges. At a meeting of the Great Council held at Clarendon in 1164, a document, known as the Constitutions of Clarendon, was agreed to; it declared, among other things, that clergy



who offended against the law should be punished by the king's courts. It was necessary, however, to secure, on behalf of the church, the consent of the Archbishop of Canterbury, otherwise the clergy would not obey the decrees.

The Archbishop of Canterbury at this time was Thomas à Becket, a man of great talent. As chancellor of the realm he had been noted for his love of luxury and display, and had strongly supported the king in all his plans. Henry naturally thought that Becket would assist him in his contest with the clergy; much to his surprise, the new archbishop resolutely refused to do so, and strongly upheld the privileges of the church. The king was angry, and made up his mind to proceed without the consent of the archbishop. The quarrel then became so bitter that Becket was forced to flee to the continent.

Henry desired that his son should succeed him without opposition, and, therefore, he had the young prince crowned and associated with him in the government. It had become a custom for the Archbishop of Canterbury to perform the ceremony of coronation, and when in his exile Becket learned that the young prince had been crowned by the Archbishop of York, he felt this as another insult, and straightway brought it about that the Pope excommunicated several councillors whom Becket thought in fault. Even after this there was so much of a reconciliation between Becket and Henry that the archbishop returned to England. Henry was in France, and the next news brought him was that Becket had persuaded the Pope to excommunicate several bishops who had assisted at the coronation of the prince. When Henry was really angry, he was almost like a madman; and now he called out in a fury: "Will no one deliver me from this insolent priest?" He always declared that he



THOMAS À BECKET

did not mean that he wished Becket to be murdered, but there were four men who took this meaning from his words. They set out for Canterbury and struck down the archbishop in the church. The whole land was aghast. Henry was frightened, and he was sincerely sorry for the words that he had spoken in his anger, and whose consequences had been so far beyond his thought. He gave up nearly every point upon which he and the dead archbishop had differed. The Pope believed in his penitence and granted him forgiveness.

But not long after all kinds of troubles came upon the land,—invasion, revolt, tempest. It was generally believed that this was in consequence of the murder, and that the king must do more to prove his penitence. Henry mounted his horse and rode to the town of Canterbury. Then he put on a woollen shirt and a coarse cloak and walked barefoot over the rough stones of the streets to Becket's tomb in the cathedral. Here he knelt and prayed. Then bishops, abbots, and the eighty monks took a rod, each in turn, and the king now dropped his cloak and received a blow from the hands of every one present. A very beautiful shrine was erected at Canterbury, and here the bones of Becket were placed. So greatly was his memory revered that many churches throughout Europe begged for even the smallest relic of him, and many thousands of people came from far-away countries to kneel before his shrine.

**51. The English in Ireland.**—At the time when Henry's messengers were in Rome trying to secure pardon for their sovereign, the king himself thought that with all the hatred aroused against him, it would be as well for him to be out of the country, and he was glad that it seemed necessary for him to go to Ireland. In the early centuries of the Christian era Ireland was more civilized than England, and sent missionaries to the surrounding countries. Her monasteries were famous for the learning of the monks and for their beautiful coloured manuscripts. The country, however, had not got beyond the stage of tribal government. The island was divided into provinces, and there was one chief, or king,

for each province, and also one to whom the others paid some general deference as to an overlord. Danes and Welshmen had landed in Ireland and had made settlements on the coast; but these were small, and at the time of Henry II the whole island was torn with domestic strife.

Henry was anxious to add Ireland to his possessions. An opportunity soon offered itself, when Dermot, the Irish king of Leinster, who had been driven from his kingdom, came over to ask help from Henry. Strongbow, an English noble, returned with Dermot, and together they won many victories over the Irish clans. When Dermot died, Strongbow, who had married his daughter, succeeded to his power. It did not please Henry to have one of his subjects king of Ireland, and in 1172 he crossed the Channel himself with a large force. Strongbow paid homage to him and many other Irish rulers submitted. Indeed, Henry might have conquered the whole island had he not been called home by rebellions which were aided by his sons and his queen, Eleanor. Prince John, who during his father's life had no lands to rule and was, therefore, called Lackland, was sent to Ireland as governor. But he mocked the native chiefs who came to dine with him, and even pulled their bushy beards. Such a prince had no power to draw Irish and English together, and very soon John was forced to leave. For many years after this the native Irish were at constant war among themselves and with the small English settlements along the coast which were known as "The English Land."

**52. Henry's sons rebel.**—It seemed to be the fate of the Norman kings to meet nothing but ingratitude from their children. Two of Henry's sons, Henry, the eldest, and Geoffrey, died before their father, after causing him a great deal of trouble; but the two other sons, Richard and John, were as troublesome as their brothers. They rebelled, and with the king of France they planned an attack upon England. Henry was then ill, but when he was told of this revolt, he said: "I have one comfort left. My son John has never conspired against me. Give me the list of the rebels." Behold, at the very head of the list was

the name of Prince John. "Let things go as they will," said the broken-hearted king. "I have nothing more to care for." Two days later he died.

**53. The Holy Grail.**—In the time of Henry a new writer appeared, one Walter Map, who wrote on the same subject that was chosen by Geoffrey of Monmouth, but Map made poems of the old crude legends. One of his stories, that of the Holy Grail, came from the continent. The Grail was the cup used by Christ at the Last Supper. The legend is that it was carried by Joseph of Arimathea to Glastonbury in England, and there it was to remain as long as its guardians were pure and good. At last the time came when one was unworthy of his trust, and the cup vanished, though it might sometimes be seen by those who were holy in thought and deed. In the stories of King Arthur it was a favourite quest of the knights to ride the world over and meet all hardship and all adventure in the hope of once having a glimpse of the sacred vision. The story is a very beautiful one, and it had a strong influence on the people of the time.

## SUMMARY

Henry II ruled his dominions well. He tore down the castles of the tyrannous barons, instituted shield-money, armed the people, and reformed the courts of justice. In his reign he instituted what developed into trial by jury, and strove to treat all men as equal before the law. At this time the English conquest of Ireland began.

## 2. RICHARD I. 1189-1199

**54. Richard ascends the throne.**—Richard, the third son of Henry, came to the throne without opposition, although his elder brother Geoffrey had left an infant son. He was not a good king, and his only notion of ruling a country was to extort as much money from it as possible; yet, because he was a brave knight, the people could not praise him enough. They called him "Cœur de Lion," or the "Lion-Hearted," and were never tired of singing

songs about him and his warlike deeds. He reigned ten years, but only a few months of that time was he in England. All his early life he had spent in France, and he could not even speak the English language.

**55. Richard as a crusader.**—When King Henry II died, Philip, King of France, and Leopold, Duke of Austria, were planning to go on a crusade. Richard wished to go with them, and no sooner had he been crowned than he set to work to raise the necessary funds. He taxed his people severely, extorted money from the Jews, sold bishoprics and other offices to any one that would pay for them, and granted various privileges to the towns for large amounts of gold. This was to the advantage of the towns, as each new privilege bought of the king was described in writing, and the writing was signed by him, so that every bit of parchment that a town gained made it a little more free than it had been before.

The three young rulers set out on the third crusade with a great flourish of banners and long trains of followers; but they had not been many weeks in the Holy Land before Philip began to feel that Richard was gaining all the glory from the expedition. Moreover, now that Richard was king, he was not so yielding as he had been when Philip was helping him to conspire against his father. The result was that Philip went home and left Richard to get along as best he could. Then Richard quarrelled with Leopold, who abandoned the expedition in a rage. The English king had not men enough to conquer the Saracens, so he, too, had to turn back, filled with sorrow that he had not been able to accomplish his quest.

**56. Richard's return to England.**—In returning overland through Austria, Richard fell into the hands of his enemy, Duke Leopold. In those days it was a piece of rare good fortune to capture a king. Leopold turned his prisoner over to his superior lord, the German Emperor, who locked him up in a strong castle until his subjects in England should pay a heavy ransom for him.

During Richard's absence there had grown up serious trouble between the barons and Hubert Walter, whom he

had left as his representative. The king of France had conspired with Prince John and several of the most powerful barons to keep the king a prisoner and to place John upon the throne. When Richard at last found his way to England, civil war had broken out; but so great was the dread of his prowess as a warrior, that the mere report of his arrival scattered John's followers at once. Richard was not revengeful; he scarcely deigned to punish the leaders, and he forgave his brother for his treason. After a two months' stay in his kingdom, he gathered his soldiers together and sailed away to France to war against Philip, his former ally in the crusade.

**57. The last days of Richard.**—The remainder of Richard's reign is a tedious account of treaties, truces, and alliances which were broken as soon as made. Richard, however, held all his provinces. In 1199 he besieged a castle he'd by one of his nobles who refused to surrender a treasure he had found. An archer shot the king from the walls of the castle. Very soon the castle surrendered, and the archer was brought before the dying king. "How have I harmed you that you should kill me?" said Richard. The young archer said, "My lord king, you killed my father, you killed my two brothers, and you meant to kill me. Revenge yourself on me as you will." Richard forgave him, but in spite of this the youth was put to a cruel death.

**58. Progress of the people.**—During Richard's long absence from England, the people made great progress in the art of carrying on their own government. Under the rule of Hubert Walter, the king's minister, or "justiciar," as he was then called, they were encouraged and trained in this respect. He taught them to choose assessors to levy and collect taxes, and to choose juries for the courts and representatives to transact any business that was required to be done. He thus prepared the people to take a more active part in the government of England.

**59. Knighthood and chivalry.**—The ideal gentleman of the time of Richard I was the knight. He must serve a long apprenticeship in some friendly castle; first, as a page, whose business it was, above all things, to learn to be obedient

and courteous. Then he became a squire, and his duty was to attend upon the lord of the castle, to carve his meat, and to fill his wine-cup, to carry his shield or helmet, to give him a lance if his was broken in a tournament, to help him to mount if he was thrown from his horse in his heavy armour, and to drag him out of battle if he was wounded.

After seven years as a squire, he himself might become a knight, but he must first spend a day and a night in a church, fasting and praying.

Then, in the presence of his friends and others, he solemnly promised to be loyal to the king, to defend the church, and to protect every lady that might need his aid.

After he had promised, some lady of high rank buckled on his spurs and girded on a sword that had been blessed by the priest. Then the king or some noble struck him lightly on the shoulder with the flat of the sword, saying, "In the name of God, Saint Michael, and Saint George, I dub thee knight. Be brave, ready, and loyal." Young noblemen became knights as a matter of course, and no one thought highly of even a king unless he had all the knightly virtues and accomplishments.



A SQUIRE BECOMING A KNIGHT

Young noblemen became knights as a matter of course, and no one thought highly of even a king unless he had all the knightly virtues and accomplishments.

In some ways knighthood was good. Men were more interested in fighting than in anything else, and this training taught them not to be so brutal in their fighting, to be generous to their enemies, to be courteous to women, to respect age and authority, and to care for music and poetry. On

the other hand, the knight was not required to be courteous to people of lower rank than himself, and he was as rough as ever when he was dealing with those whom he thought his inferiors.

To give the young men practice in the use of arms, the tournament was made by Richard of great importance in England. This was a mock battle fought by mounted knights in full armour, but generally with blunted weapons. A large field was levelled and fenced in, called the "lists." Two companies of knights would then be chosen, and these would take their places at opposite ends of the lists. At a given signal they charged, meeting in the centre with a terrible shock, the object of each knight being to unhorse and disable his adversary. Those knights who were unhorsed were allowed to continue the combat on foot with swords until one side yielded. The victors' names were then proclaimed by a herald, and they received prizes from the hands of the lady who had been chosen queen of the tournament. Sometimes two champions would joust by themselves, and then the victor would fight any one who chose to dispute his championship.

### SUMMARY

The knight was the ideal gentleman of the time, and Richard was the ideal knight. The story of his reign circles around his career as a crusader. To raise money for the crusade, he sold many privileges to the wealthy towns, so that at the end of his reign of ten years they held as their most valued possessions charters which secured to them a great increase of liberty.

### 3. JOHN. 1199-1216

**60. The loss of the French provinces.**—Richard had left no children, and now John, the youngest son of Henry II became king. The lawful heir to the throne was not John, but Arthur, Duke of Brittany, the son of his elder brother Geoffrey. Richard had wished Arthur to succeed him, but



he was only a boy, and the old Saxon custom of electing from the royal family a man who could lead in battle, prevailed. John was so thoroughly hated in France that the people refused to acknowledge him and supported the claim of Arthur. As a vassal of the king of France, Arthur called upon his lord to protect his rights in the French provinces, and King Philip placed an army at his disposal. In the war that followed, Arthur was captured, and is said to have been murdered by his uncle. Certain it is that he disappeared and was not heard of afterwards.

Whether John committed the murder or not, Philip accused him of it and summoned him to Paris to answer for the death of Arthur. According to the feudal law, as John and Arthur were both his vassals, so far as their French provinces were concerned, Philip had a right to try John in his own court. As John refused to appear, Philip declared his estates forfeited, and immediately took possession of Anjou, Normandy, and the other provinces north of the Loire which had belonged to the English king. When the news was brought to John that Philip was taking one castle after another, and that the people were accepting his rule, he said, "Let Philip go on; whatever he takes, I shall retake in a single day." By and by he tried, but his army was defeated in 1214 at the battle of Bouvines in Flanders. By this battle England and Normandy became separated.

Since the Norman conquest, there had been two races in England, Normans and English; henceforth there was to be but one. There had been two languages, but from this time they gradually began to blend. The proud Norman could no longer point to the despised English as a conquered race, for his own country had now been conquered, and he must call himself an Englishman. "Thus the two races, so long hostile, found at last that they had common interests and common enemies."

**61. John's quarrel with the church.**—John's second trouble was with the church. The Archbishop of Canterbury had died, and the king and the clergy disagreed as to who should be his successor. The Pope suggested Stephen

Langton, a learned and pious Englishman then at Rome. The clergy agreed and Langton was consecrated.

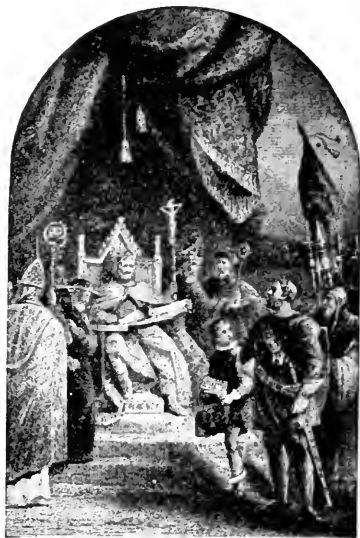
But John refused to allow Langton to land in England, and began to plunder the monks. He drove many of them from their monasteries and compelled them to leave the country. The Pope then, in 1208, laid England under an interdict; that is to say, he forbade the clergy to perform any church service. When the appointed day came the churches were instantly closed. Only the most necessary sacraments were given. No marriage service was performed, "the church-bells were silent, the dead lay unburied on the ground." The sudden cutting off of all forms of religion filled the people with horror. John, however, was not moved, and he took especial pleasure in seizing the property of all the clergy who obeyed the interdict.

When the interdict had lasted a year, the Pope excommunicated the king. When even this failed to move John, the Pope threatened to declare the throne vacant, to absolve the people from their oath of allegiance, and to give the kingdom to Philip, king of France. Philip quickly gathered an army to make good his claim.

Then, at last, John saw that he must yield. He knew that he could not depend on his own army. He knelt at the feet of the Pope's legate and took the crown from his head. By this act he gave his kingdom to the Pope. He then took the same oath to the Pope that vassals took to their lords, and received his crown again, on condition that he pay to the Pope annually the sum of one thousand marks. Langton was received as archbishop and the property of the monks was restored. Philip, who had already met defeat off the coast of Flanders, was compelled to give up his idea of invasion.

**62. The Great Charter, 1215.**—It was just after these events that John tried to regain his French provinces north of the Loire, and lost the battle of Bouvines. From the beginning of his reign, John had cruelly oppressed all classes, and now his tyranny grew worse than ever. The barons knew that they could depend upon the support of the people, and were already planning to assert their rights. In 1213 Langton

proposed to them that John be asked to reissue the charter given by Henry I; but nothing was done. The next year, however, the barons met in the church at Bury St. Edmunds, in Suffolk, and one by one they swore at the altar that if the king did not grant their request they would begin war against him. When the charter was presented to the king by a large number of barons, he turned pale and trembled as he looked into the stern and resolute faces before him. "Give me till Easter to think about this," he said. The barons understood him, and when they presented the charter again, at Oxford, they had two thousand armed knights at their back. Langton read aloud the demands of the people, which ended with the sentence, "And if these claims are not immediately granted, our arms shall do us justice."



JOHN SIGNING MAGNA CARTA

John angrily refused to sign the charter. The barons at once levied war against him, calling themselves "the army of God and of the Holy Church." Robert FitzWalter was elected commander, and London opened her gates to the army. When John saw that further delay meant the loss of his crown, he asked the leaders to name a day and place where he could meet them.

"Let the day," they replied, "be the 15th of June and the place Runnymede." And there on the Thames near London the barons met the king with a few followers, and compelled him to sign the Magna Carta, or Great Charter, which became the foundation stone of English liberty. It

has been confirmed by more than thirty kings and Parliaments since that time, and is still considered the most important document in the history of the English people.

**63. Provisions of the Charter.**—In the charter the king agreed, among many other things, to levy no taxes without the consent of the Great Council of the kingdom. This did not mean that he was to give up his ancient feudal rights, but that he was not to go beyond those rights. No freeman was to be outlawed or imprisoned, or to have his property taken from him, except by the judgment of a lawful court where the jury would be men of his own rank. Church lands were not to be unjustly taxed, nor was the king to interfere with the clergy in their right to elect from among themselves such church dignitaries as bishops and archbishops. Justice was not to be delayed or bought or sold, and assize courts were to be held regularly four times a year in each county. The king's foreign soldiers were to be sent out of the country. Finally, the charter provided that five and twenty barons should be chosen who were to see that the king kept his promises; and in case he did not they were to seize his castles and lands, and to wage war against him until right was done.

**64. Final troubles and death of John.**—The king had no mind to live up to such promises as these. He had agreed to dismiss his foreign troops, but the ink on the charter was scarcely dry when he hired more men and set out into the north of England to punish the barons who had led the movement against him. And the barons did not suffer alone. Never, since the days of the Conqueror, were such horrors known in England. People were murdered, tortured, and plundered. Castles, cities, and even the humble homes of the poor were burned. In the morning, John himself applied the torch to the home where he had slept at night.

The barons had in the meantime invited the king of France to come to their help with an army, promising in return the crown of England to his son Louis. The young prince came and was laying siege to some castles held by the retainers of John, when suddenly matters were brought

to a standstill by the death of the king. As his army, in its career of murder and plunder, was crossing the Wash, the tide suddenly rose and carried away his baggage, including his jewels and a large amount of money. His rage at this misfortune made him ill, and a few days later he died.

### SUMMARY

John's supposed murder of his nephew brought about the loss of the French lands, a loss that was a gain, for the interest of the Norman barons became more fully centred in England, and they began to see that what was to the advantage of the English was also to their advantage. John's tyranny and injustice led to revolt on the part of the barons, and his quarrel with the church gave to the barons a fearless leader in Archbishop Langton. The result of the struggle was that John was forced to sign Magna Carta or the Great Charter. John broke his promises, and, with hired troops, waged war on the barons; in the midst of the struggle he died.

#### 4. HENRY III. 1216-1272

**65. The child king.**—The only member of the royal family left to inherit the crown was a boy named Henry, who was but nine years old. Before this time it had never occurred to any one that it would answer at all to choose a child for king; but now the English must either choose him, or else take some one not a member of the family that had ruled them so long. It was necessary to come to a decision quickly, as Louis with a French army was still in England, and expecting to secure the throne. Both the barons and the clergy rallied around the youthful prince, who was at once crowned king. There was no special trouble in driving out the French, and matters in general went on very well under the rule of the Great Council until Henry came of age in 1227 and took charge of the government.

**66. Henry's government.**—As soon as Henry had full power in his own hands, he began the old practice of taxing the people without consulting their willingness in the matter. He had married a French princess, and partly for this reason, and partly because of his mother's influence, he

showed great favour to foreigners. The best offices in England, both in church and state, were given to Frenchmen, and immense sums were lavished on them. Henry would gratify his desire for display whether his subjects were pleased or not, and extravagant amounts were spent in mere wasteful show and in attempts to regain his father's possessions in France. As a result he was always in need, and was continually demanding money from the people.

If Henry had been a king of whom the English people could have been proud, they would have given to him as generously as they did to Richard; but his government was weak, he had never won glory in war, and Englishmen began to realize how foolish it was to make themselves poor that such a king might have money to throw away. The people were long-suffering, but whenever they seemed ready to make a stand, the king would yield and would promise whatever they asked. Perhaps he really meant to keep his promises, but he was so weak that he broke them at the first temptation. At last, after Henry had been on the throne for over forty years, the moment came when the people would bear no more.

**67. The Provisions of Oxford.**—In 1258 there was a failure of crops in the land, owing to continued heavy rains, and many thousands of people died of starvation. In the midst of this general distress, Henry demanded large sums of money to be used in endeavouring to make his son king of Sicily. This was more than the country would stand. The Great Council was called together to consider the condition of the realm. When Henry entered the room, he saw that all the barons wore their armour. He was frightened, and gave his assent to all the Council asked. A number of resolutions, known as the Provisions of Oxford, were drawn up, and were agreed to by Henry. The chief feature of these resolutions was the appointment of a committee of barons to supervise the actions of the king. But Henry soon broke his promise, and the barons determined to compel him to yield to their will. They raised an army, defeated the royal forces at Lewes in 1264, and captured both Henry and his son Edward.

68. **The beginning of the House of Commons.**—The leader of the barons at Lewes was Simon de Montfort, a Frenchman by birth, but an Englishman at heart. He possessed large estates in England, and had married a sister of the king. Earl Simon was a soldier and a statesman of the highest order, and was popularly known, on account of his strict justice and moral worth, as “Sir Simon the Righteous.” Some of the barons had fought against the king for selfish reasons, but Simon was a true lover of his country and insisted that the people should be represented in the government, so that whatever was done would receive the support of the whole nation.

As the barons were not fighting to dethrone Henry, but to compel him to treat his subjects fairly, it was determined in 1265, the year after the battle of Lewes, to call a Parliament in the name of the king. Simon’s plan was carried out, and not only were the barons and clergy summoned, but also writs were issued to certain cities and boroughs, asking each of them to send two representatives, and two knights were summoned from each shire. This was the first time that the commons of England had been invited with the barons and clergy to discuss great affairs of state. The Parliament did no work of importance, but the people had been taught by Simon how they might exercise their power. This was the beginning of the House of Commons of to-day.

But the king’s supporters had not laid down their arms. On the other hand, many of Simon’s supporters among the barons were afraid that he was becoming too powerful. What they desired was a forceful and patriotic king who could rule by himself, and not a king ruled by Sir Simon, be he ever so righteous. Prince Edward had been held as a hostage after the battle of Lewes, but he escaped from his guardians. Joining his forces to those of the dissatisfied barons, he attacked Simon’s party at a disadvantage at Evesham in 1265 and utterly defeated it. When the earl saw the great array led by the prince, he said, “They are approaching with wisdom; let us commend our souls to God, for our bodies are Edward’s.” He asked no quarter,

but died with his son, sword in hand, in a little valley where the carnage was thickest.

Seven years after the battle of Evesham, Henry died. His life was free from the vices that degraded King John, but he was an incompetent ruler, and did not keep faith with his people.

69. **The Friars and their charitable work.**—It was in Henry's reign that the Begging Friars, followers of St.



DOMINICAN AND FRANCISCAN FRIARS

Francis and St. Dominic, known as the Franciscans and the Dominicans, made their way into England. Most of the earlier monks had shut themselves up in monasteries where they devoted themselves to learning and to the salvation of their own souls; but these new brothers went among the humblest people,

tending the sick, teaching the ignorant, and reforming the vile. The unselfish lives and splendid devotion of the friars won the respect of all classes.

### SUMMARY

Just as the wickedness of John aroused the opposition that resulted in Magna Carta, so the folly and extravagance of Henry III led to the representation of the people in Parliament. By the efforts of Simon de Montfort, citizens and country gentlemen, as well as barons and clergy, were asked to meet to discuss the affairs of the nation. From this beginning the House of Commons developed. The Begging Friars came to England in this reign.



## 5. EDWARD I. 1272—1307

**70. Edward becomes king.**—The English people rejoiced to have Edward for their king. He had opposed their champion, but they felt that he really sympathized with them and had fought only to support his father. Whether he was dead or alive, they did not know, since he had gone to the far-away East on a crusade; but as soon as Henry III was buried, the chief men of the kingdom met in Westminster Abbey and took a solemn oath that they would be true to Edward. When the king returned two years later, they gave him a royal welcome.

Edward was a grown-up man when he became king. He was tall and commanding in appearance, a superb horseman, and accomplished in the use of weapons. But more than this, he was wise and prudent in his actions, seldom lost control of his temper, and was faithful to his friends and to his people. His wife, Eleanor, daughter of the king of Castile, was worthy of her husband. When she died in the north of England in 1290, her body was brought to Westminster for burial. At each halting place of the funeral procession Edward caused to be set up a richly ornamented cross, as a witness of his affection. Three of these crosses, one of which is Charing Cross in London, are still preserved.

**71. Gains from the crusades.**—Edward was the last king of England who took part in a crusade. Although the crusaders did not gain possession of the Holy Land, yet these expeditions were of great value. The crusaders themselves were brought in contact with a civilization which was different from their own, and from which there was much to learn in the way of culture and refinement. They learned to use new words and to think new thoughts. Men are often uncharitable just because they are ignorant, and the crusaders learned to look more kindly upon even the Saracens with whom they had fought, for they had seen that their heathen foes were often brave and truthful.

One great change that the crusades helped to bring

about in England was in the ownership of land. Much of the land of the kingdom had been in the hands of a very few men, who were called lords of the manor, because they owned large farms, or manors. People living on the manors were not permitted to leave them, and were obliged to work so many days every year for the owner. When these lords wanted funds for a crusade, they were glad to accept money instead of work, and sometimes they would allow the workmen to buy a piece of land for themselves. The result was that at the end of the crusades many owned land, and, of course, these people were especially anxious to have a good government, for they began to feel that if they owned a piece of England, then what was good for England was a gain to them.

**72. Edward's policy.**—Although Edward had slain Earl Simon at Evesham, he continued Simon's policy of keeping foreigners out of the country, and of giving all classes of the people a share in the government. In this way he enacted many excellent laws to which the people gave a willing obedience.

The civil wars of Henry III had left the land infested by bands of robbers. A man's life was not safe if he travelled alone, and even the walled towns had to be carefully guarded. Edward ordered that every man from fifteen to sixty years of age should provide himself with arms, and all were bound to pursue and capture lawbreakers. The trees and bushes were cleared away from the sides of the roads, in order that travellers might not be waylaid by robbers, and much of this evil soon came to an end.

An important law called the Statute of Mortmain, was enacted by Edward. Lands belonging to the church were not subject to certain feudal dues, and as a large part of England was now in the hands of the church, the revenue from the land was much less than it had formerly been. The Statute of Mortmain forbade the giving of any land to the church, either by will or during the lifetime of the owner, without the consent of the king.

**73. The Model Parliament.**—In 1295 Edward was in need of money to carry on his wars. In order to raise this money

he called together a full Parliament of the realm. As he said, "What touches all should be approved by all." The Parliament was attended by all the bishops, abbots, earls and barons, besides two knights from each shire, and two citizens from every important borough or town. The clergy of each cathedral and parish also sent a representative. This was called the "Model Parliament," and is important because it served as a model for later Parliaments.

This Parliament voted the taxes to carry on the war. The war, however, was so expensive that, two years later, Edward called for more money, this time without the Parliament voting it. This arbitrary taxation very much offended the people, especially the barons, who refused to go with the king to fight in France. The clergy and the nobles now joined hands, and the king was compelled to grant a "confirmation" of the previous charters, and to agree never to take any tax from the whole country without the consent of Parliament.

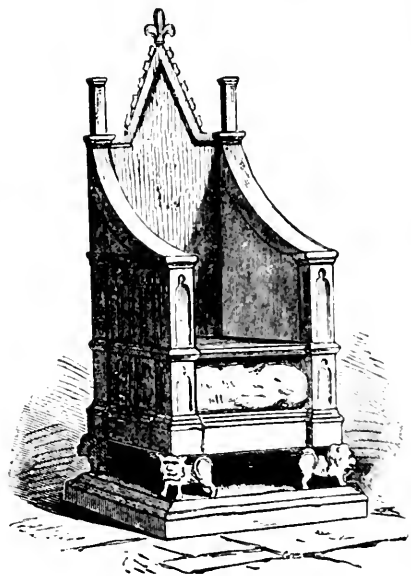
**74. The conquest of Wales, 1277-1283.**—Edward was a soldier, and during his reign waged many wars, principally with Wales and with Scotland. The Welsh were descendants of the early Britons whom the Saxons had driven to the west; and, although they had often been obliged to pay tribute to the king of England and to acknowledge him as overlord, they had never really submitted, nor parted with their independence. When Edward summoned Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, to his coronation, the Welsh prince refused to attend, but a fleet and an army soon obliged him to submit. Six years later news came that large bands of Welsh had attacked the western counties and were murdering the people and carrying away their property. War began again and was now pressed vigorously. Llewellyn was slain, his brother David was put to death as a traitor, and Wales was annexed to England.

The Welsh had an old tradition that none but a native born prince should ever rule over them. Edward told them that he would give them a prince who had been born in their land and who had never spoken a word of English. Behold, when their prince was presented to them, he was Edward's

baby son, who had been born in Wales a few months before, and was too young to speak a word of any language. He was called Prince of Wales, and that is why the eldest son of the English sovereign usually receives that title, though he has no more power over Wales than over any other part of the kingdom.

**75. The attempt to conquer Scotland.**—Edward also attempted to conquer Scotland, but this proved a far harder task than to conquer Wales. The Scottish king had died, leaving no direct heir, and several distant relatives claimed the throne. These agreed to submit the dispute to Edward, but he refused to act unless he were acknowledged as overlord. Although the commons would not consent, the barons and clergy did. Edward decided in favour of John Balliol, though Robert Bruce had a claim that many thought equally good.

Soon Edward began to act so much as if he himself were king of



THE CORONATION CHAIR

Scotland that even Balliol rebelled. Edward invaded Scotland in 1296, dethroned Balliol, and compelled the Scots to submit to his rule. When he went home, he carried with him to London a stone upon which the kings of Scotland had always sat when they were crowned. It is called the Stone of Scone, and the people believed that it was the very one that Jacob had for a pillow when he dreamed of the ladder and the angels. Edward put it into the

chair in Westminster Abbey on which the king of England sits at his coronation.

Thinking that Scotland was conquered, Edward went to France to settle with the French king, who was disputing the claim of England to Gascony. But Scotland was not conquered. She waited only for a leader, and soon a leader appeared in the person of Sir William Wallace. At first he does not seem to have had many followers, and the few he had were mostly of the humble class. Gradually his personal bravery drew around him many bold spirits, until he had an army. This army now marched into England and began to lay waste the country. On the approach of the English, Wallace retreated northwards, and made a stand at Stirling. In order to reach him, the English had to cross a narrow bridge and when only half the army was over, Wallace made his attack; the result was a great victory for the Scots.

Six months later Edward returned from France and gathered a large army for the invasion of Scotland. He overtook Wallace at Falkirk in 1298. More than twenty thousand Scots are said to have been slain, and Wallace escaped with only a few followers. He now lived for a time in hiding, a part being spent in France. He returned to Scotland, was betrayed into the hands of the English, and in 1305 was put to death as a traitor. He had failed because the Scottish people were not united. Many of their nobles were of Norman blood, and had little sympathy with the peasant class in their love of freedom. But Wallace had aroused in the Scottish people a spirit of resistance that could not be extinguished even in the midst of defeat.

Robert Bruce, a grandson of Balliol's rival, and the next claimant to the throne of Scotland, was now twenty-three years old. At this time he was living at the court of Edward, but just after the death of Wallace, he escaped to Scotland. He had some quarrel with Comyn, nephew and heir to John Balliol. After bitter words had passed between them, Bruce stabbed his rival in the church at Dumfries. But the Scots so strongly resented the domination of England, that they were ready to overlook the murder as an act of self-defence,

and in 1306 Bruce was crowned king. Edward's wrath was terrible. He sent an army into Scotland, and for a time carried all before him. Bruce had to go into hiding, while his wife and daughters fell into Edward's power. The Countess of Buchan, who put the crown on Bruce's head, was closely confined in a wooden cage in a turret of Berwick Castle. Many Scottish nobles who had aided Bruce were hanged. But the Scots were aroused, and a determined and united people are hard to conquer. Bruce was soon in arms again with many followers.

Edward now gathered a great army to crush the Scots. The brave old king, however, was worn out with a life of warfare, and his hopes rested on the Prince of Wales. The royal army moved slowly northwards, but the king grew weaker every day. At last he could advance but two miles daily, and, when near the border, he died. His last wish was that his son should continue the war, and he asked that his body should be carried at the head of the army, so that he might still lead his men against the hated enemy. But the son was not the man to carry on his father's work. He returned to London, and Edward was buried with his forefathers in Westminster Abbey.

**76. Banishment of the Jews.**—Perhaps no one act of Edward brought him so much praise at the time as the cruel expulsion of the Jews. Thus far they had been allowed to live in England, although they were treated with contempt by all classes. The people hated them on account of their nationality, their wealth, the hard bargains they drove, and the high rates of interest they exacted on loans. Edward persecuted them unsparingly, and, finally, in 1290, banished them from England. Thousands of Jews were forced to leave the kingdom. They were allowed to take their personal property, but their houses and lands were seized by the crown.

**77. Literary progress.**—The two centuries that had passed since the battle of Hastings had brought many changes to the language that was spoken in England. The Normans had found it quite worth while to know English, and the English had found it convenient to know French. More

and more, however, people were coming to look upon a knowledge of French as an accomplishment and upon English as the real language of the country. A great many French words had now become part of the English language, but the English did not pronounce them in the French way; and as for the spelling, they were spelled in whatever way came to mind first.

The books that were written were chiefly about England and her history; some of this history is true, and some of it goes back to the half-fabulous days of King Arthur. The unwritten literature, however, is far more attractive. In the time of the earlier kings, the cruel barons had robbed the people so unmercifully that many had abandoned their homes and had gone to live in the forests. Now men began to make ballads about bold Robin Hood, the merry outlaw who took from the rich and gave to the poor, who played pranks on sheriffs and wealthy bishops, but who was always ready to help any one in trouble. It was a long time before the ballads were put in writing, but they were sung throughout the land. Any man who could sing a ballad was ever a welcome guest. People would gather in groups at any time to listen to him. The ballads were on well-known old stories, or on any recent event that struck the fancy of the singer. He would not try to remember how another man had sung the song, but would sing what chanced to come to his own mind, and make up lines whenever he forgot. In this way, the song changed with every singer.

The accounts of early England that were written in this century are interesting; but, even though the monks who wrote them would have been greatly astonished at the thought that their pages of dignified Latin were not so valuable as the songs, it is, after all, these ballads that are the real English literature of the period, the real voice of the masses of the English people.

### SUMMARY

One important result of the crusades was that the number of people holding land had greatly increased; another was that new thoughts and a wider knowledge had come to England. In this reign Wales was

conquered; but, owing to the brave leadership of Wallace and then of Bruce, no permanent conquest of Scotland was made. The Jews were expelled from the kingdom. Freedom was gained in the passing of many useful laws and in the representation of all classes in a regularly organized Parliament. English became more and more the language of the people. History was written, but the best English literature of the period was the unwritten ballads.

## 6. EDWARD II. 1307-1327

**78. Edward II and his favourite.**—Edward II now sat on the throne, but the real ruler of the land was a young Frenchman named Piers Gaveston. This favourite was a foolish, frivolous man; although Edward I and his Parliament had banished him, almost the first thing that the new king did was to call him back. Then Edward had him walk next to himself at the coronation ceremonies, and when he went to France for his bride, he made Gaveston regent during his absence. At last the country could bear with the unworthy favourite no longer, and he was banished. In a short time the king called him back, and proclaimed him a “true and loyal subject.” Finally, the barons took matters into their own hands, and put Gaveston to death.

**79. Bannockburn, 1314.**—The old king's dying command to his son was to finish the Scottish war himself, but Edward II appointed a new governor of Scotland and went away to his court in the south. Robert Bruce improved his opportunity. Within a few years he won back everything that Edward I had taken from him, and laid siege to Stirling, the last stronghold of the English across the border. The garrison there agreed to surrender if not relieved by midsummer, 1314. This news at last roused the king, and he led an army against the Scots.

At Bannockburn, Bruce made preparation for the reception of the English by digging great pits in front of his army, in which he placed sharpened stakes, concealing them with a covering of turf. The English archers, as usual, began the battle, but they were poorly supported and were driven off by the Scottish cavalry. Then an English charge over the



pitfalls threw the whole English army into confusion. While the knights and the horses were floundering about, wounded by the sharp stakes, a body of Scottish servants and camp followers appeared over the brow of a hill. The English, taking this for a reinforcement, fled in haste, pursued by the Scots, who overtook and slew hundreds in their flight. The English lost ten thousand men and all their baggage and supplies. Edward himself escaped and finally reached London by boat. Although the war went on for many years, the English never again made any serious attempt to conquer Scotland.



ROBERT BRUCE

80. **Edward is deposed.**—Edward had other favourites by this time, and they were as arrogant and offensive as Gaveston. The queen, too, had a favourite, one Mortimer; and these two came over from France with an army and drove the king into Wales. The country had borne all that it could bear. Parliament met, and sent commissioners to the king to demand that he should resign the crown that he had worn so unworthily. Instead of making any defence, the king burst into tears and thanked Parliament most humbly for having chosen his son to take his place. One of the commissioners then said, "In the name of all the people of the land, I renounce the oath of fealty that was made to you."

Edward was taken to a castle and kept in confinement for several months. Then he was secretly murdered, many thought by Mortimer and the queen.

### SUMMARY

The real rulers of the land were the unworthy favourites of the king. After the defeat at Bannockburn, Edward gave up the attempt to conquer the Scots. The queen and her favourite drove him into Wales; and, finally, the English people exercised for the first time their right to depose a weak and worthless sovereign.

## 7. EDWARD III. 1327-1377

**81. The war with Scotland.**—After Edward II was deposed, a regency was appointed to govern the kingdom, as Edward III was only fourteen years old. Mortimer and Isabella, however, were the real rulers.

England had never acknowledged the independence of Scotland, and Bruce now invaded and plundered the northern counties to compel her to do so. Mortimer and Edward led an army against the Scots; but the latter had learned the folly of risking everything in a great battle, and were so rapid in their movements that the English could not come up with them. At last Mortimer and the queen concluded a peace by which the independence of Scotland was acknowledged.

This peace made Mortimer and the queen so unpopular that Edward, three years later, resolved to take over the government himself. Mortimer was arrested and condemned to death by Parliament as a traitor. The queen was imprisoned in her palace and allowed no further part in the government. Edward refused to keep Mortimer's treaty, and, again invading Scotland and defeating the Scottish king, David II, at Halidon Hill, placed Edward Balliol on the throne. David fled to France, but was soon restored to his kingdom by the Scots.

**82. The Hundred Years' War begins.**—In the meantime the relations between England and France were becoming more and more unfriendly. The English kings still held some possessions in France, of which Aquitaine was the chief. The king of France was overlord of these provinces, and for them, under the feudal law, the English kings had to do homage to him. The French king was determined to have complete control of all the provinces in any way subject to France. With the object of weakening the power of the English king, the French had formed an alliance with the Scots and had given them some help in their struggle for independence. Further, during this war the French had seized upon English vessels carrying wool to Flanders. Wool was

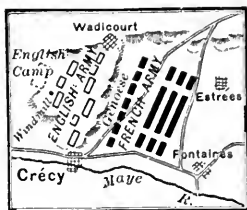
the most important export of England; Flanders bought the wool, made fine cloth, and sold it to England. This interruption to trade stopped the work of the Flemish weavers, and seriously interfered with the business of both countries. The French king was also attempting to gain control of Flanders, and if he succeeded, English trade with that country would be crippled.

Philip, king of France, now seized Aquitaine and refused to surrender it to Edward. The English king, on his part, put forth a claim to the throne of France on the ground that he was the rightful heir, as his mother, Isabella, was a sister of the late king, while Philip was only a cousin. The French asserted that, under their law, no woman could either rule in France, or transmit the crown to her son; this, however, Edward refused to admit. The war to secure the throne of France for an English king began in 1338 and lasted, with some intervals, for over one hundred years.

The first battle of the war was for the mastery of the Channel, in order that the wool trade with Flanders might be carried on with safety. The English gathered a strong fleet, and in 1340 attacked the French off Sluys, on the Netherland coast. In the battle that followed, the French were defeated with great loss. No man dared tell the news to Philip until his court jester said, "Those English are terrible cowards." "Why?" said Philip. "Because they were afraid to leap into the sea as our brave French did," said the clown.

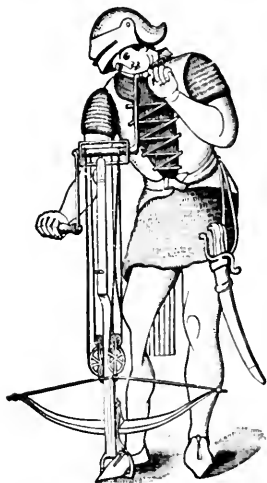
Six years later, Edward landed in Normandy, ravaged the country, and then began a march across France to join his allies in Flanders. Philip pursued, and the English army awaited attack at Crécy, where in 1346 was fought one of the most famous battles of English history. The French king was depending mainly on his mounted knights, clad in armour, who fought with sword and lance. He had also fifteen thousand Genoese archers, who fought with the crossbow, an awkward weapon, which had to be wound up with wheel and ratchet to set the string every time it was discharged. The English archers, who formed the main body of Edward's army used the

long-bow and heavy arrows tipped with barbs of steel. Long practice enabled them to use this weapon with fatal effect at three hundred yards, while at close range the knights' armour was no protection against its deadly force.



BATTLE OF CRÉCY

The English army was drawn up in three divisions. Two divisions formed the line of battle, and the third was kept in the rear as a reserve. Edward dismounted his knights and placed them among the archers with levelled spears. Philip sent the Genoese crossbowmen forward to open the battle, but a heavy rain had just wet their bowstrings and made their weapons useless.



A GENOESE CROSSBOWMAN Winding up or bending his crossbow the field and despatched those who were wounded or entangled by their armour or horses. King Edward's eldest son, the Black Prince, commanded the right wing. In the thick of the fight a messenger came to Edward for assistance.

"Is the prince dead or wounded?" asked the king.

"No, sire; but he is hard pressed and needs your help."

"Then," said the king, "return and tell those who sent you not to send again while my son lives. Command them to let the boy win his spurs!"

When the day of Crécy was over, the English army of less than thirty thousand had defeated the French army, more than three times as numerous, of whom nearly a third were left dead on the field.

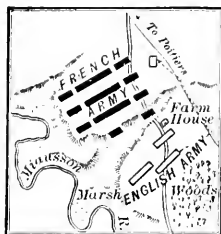
The Scots, according to an agreement made with Philip, now invaded England, but they were defeated at Neville's Cross, and their king, David, was carried off to London, a prisoner. Meanwhile, Edward pushed on to Calais and besieged the town. The brave defenders held out for a whole year, and when they surrendered in 1347, it was only because they were starving. Edward was so angry at the resistance he had met with, that he ordered six of the leading citizens to come to him with ropes about their necks. He intended to hang them, but his wife, Queen Philippa, begged so earnestly for their lives that he released them. He now drove from Calais the Frenchmen who refused to swear allegiance to him, and made it an English colony. The city remained in the possession of England for over two hundred years.

Edward offered to make peace if King John, who had succeeded Philip, would give him the full sovereignty of Aquitaine; but this John refused to do. In 1355 the war was renewed and the Black Prince led a plundering expedition through southern France. The next year he swept through central France and began his return march with eight thousand men guarding his load

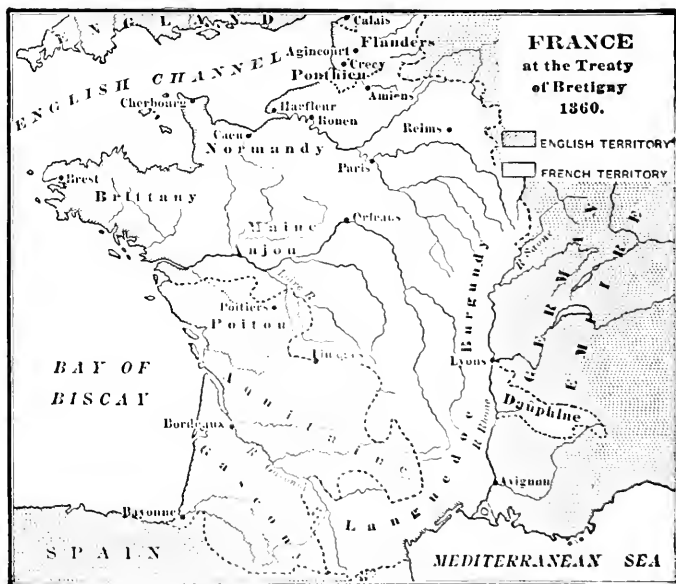


AN ENGLISH ARCHER

of plunder. When near Poitiers, south of the Loire, he was overtaken by King John with fifty thousand Frenchmen. With the exception that John dismounted the greater part of his knights, the tactics of Crécy were repeated, with results more disastrous to the French. The English were drawn up on both sides of a long lane, behind hedges which protected them. As the French came charging down the lane, both men and horses were shot down until the remainder stopped and fled in terror. The English charged upon the fugitives, and attacked the French reserve force both in



BATTLE OF POITIERS



front and in flank. King John was taken prisoner, and the battle was won.

In 1360 the Peace of Bretigny was made, by which Edward gave up his claim to the French crown, and received

full sovereignty over Aquitaine and Calais. King John was to pay a huge sum for his ransom. Three years before this, Edward had acknowledged the independence of Scotland, and had released King David on the promise to pay a ransom of sixty thousand pounds.

The terms of the treaty of Bretigny were not observed and the war again broke out. This time, however, it was very disastrous to the English, for the French, under the leadership of the heroic Bertrand du Guesclin, were everywhere successful. The English were forced to give up all the territory they had gained, with the exception of a few towns along the coast.

**83. England's new idea.**—England was exceedingly proud of the victory at Crécy; but this battle gave her more than glory, it gave her a new idea. When the people saw that the battle of Crécy was won by men who had neither coat of mail, nor spear, nor horse, they discovered that in battle a yeoman was as good as a knight. Before this, people had thought that the only way for poor folk to live was under the protection of a baron or an armed knight. The new idea that had come to England was that even people without horse or armour could protect themselves.

**84. The Black Death.**—This fact alone might not for a long time have made any general change in the way of living; but two or three years later, while people were slowly beginning to take in this new thought, a terrible pestilence, called the Black Death, swept over Europe, coming last of all to England in 1349. It is thought that nearly half of the population died. In some of the cities so many were dead that grass grew in the principal streets; and, in the country districts, matters were even worse, for sometimes nearly all the people on a manor died. What caused the disease is not known, but it was much more severe than it would otherwise have been had not the houses been so dirty and small and dark, with so few windows. Piles of rubbish and puddles of filthy water were allowed to gather just outside the doors. In the city, the streets were narrow, there was no drainage, and there was not even the good air of the country.

**85. Some results of the French wars and the Black Death.**

—During the crusades, as has been said, the lords would often allow their tenants, or villeins, as they were called, to pay their dues in money instead of in work. Even then some that might have been free remained on the manor, because, if they went away, there was no work by which they could support themselves, since all the other manors had men enough. People had learned, during the crusades, that a man who was born a villein need not always remain a villein; and since so many had died of the Black Death, there were now always manors that needed workmen. Moreover, Queen Philippa, who was a Fleming, had brought men from Flanders to teach the English how to weave fine woollen cloth; now, if a villein ran away, he could work on a manor for money, or go to a city and learn to weave; moreover, there was an old law by which if he could manage to stay away from the manor for a year and a day, he was free, and could not be obliged to return.

There was so much work to be done and there were so few to do it on the manors to which they belonged, that wages became very high. When Parliament saw how difficult it was to get the labourers to work, a law was passed, called the Statute of Labourers, which provided that men and women under sixty years of age and having no land or means of their own must serve the first employer who offered them work, and that they must take the same wages as before the plague. But as labourers were so scarce, some landlords were willing to pay a little more than the old rate, and then the labourers would often go from parish to parish in search of better wages. Parliament then passed another statute by which a labourer was not allowed to go outside of his own parish, and any that were found roving were to be arrested and branded on the forehead with the letter F, meaning "falsity." Although the law was so severe, it did not prevent many from running away. Some of these fugitives became robbers; many more became beggars. The result of all these measures was to increase the hatred of the peasantry for the landowners.



**86. Death of Edward III.**—While the labour trouble was going on, the reign of the third Edward was drawing to a gloomy close. The Black Prince had met with disaster in the French war, and, after losing many of England's possessions, had come home to die. Good Queen Philippa was dead, and the old king was quite under the influence of bad advisers who plundered him and then left him to die, alone and desolate.

### SUMMARY

Edward was forced to acknowledge the independence of Scotland; but he laid claim to the throne of France, and this claim led to the Hundred Years' War. The English won the battles of Crécy and Poitiers, but before the death of the king they had lost almost all of their possessions in France. The victory won by the yeomen at Crécy showed that a villein need not depend upon a noble for protection. The Black Death gave the peasant's work on the land a greatly increased value, while the manufacture of fine woollens in England gave him a greater chance to support himself. Owing to the laws passed by Parliament in the interests of the landowners, there was general discontent among the peasantry at the end of Edward's reign.

### S. RICHARD II. 1377-1399

**87. The Peasants' Revolt.**—Although Edward III left several sons, the crown passed to Richard, the son of the Black Prince. As the young king was only ten years old, the real power was in the hands of a Council appointed by Parliament. A variety of troubles now threatened the kingdom. The French attacked the coast. The Scots, acting with France as usual, plundered the border, and to make matters worse, the peasantry were on the verge of an outbreak.

There were many causes for the great rising of the peasantry in 1381. They were angry at the attempts of the landowners to make them work for small wages and to restrict their freedom. They felt that all their grievances were caused by the ruling classes, who passed laws always in their own interest. At last a tax imposed to meet the cost of the French and Scottish wars brought the discen-

tent to a head. The tax was imposed on all classes, but fell with special hardness on the peasants and the poorer people in the towns. Rebellions broke out in several parts of the kingdom, and for a time the rebels carried all before them.

Near London a vast crowd of peasants gathered under the leadership of Wat Tyler. They released John Ball, a priest who for some years had been preaching to the people, inflaming them against the rich and those in authority, and who had been imprisoned for this. Ball harangued the mob from the famous couplet,—

“When Adam delved and Eve span,  
Who was then the gentleman?”

and so excited them that they were ready for any excesses. They marched on London and entered the city. Riot and pillage followed. The king met the mob to discuss their demands. These were that they should be free men; that land should be rented at a uniform rate; that they might buy and sell wherever they chose, and that all who had taken part in the uprising should be pardoned. The king agreed to all these demands; but in the meantime another mob had entered the Tower and had murdered the Archbishop of Canterbury and the treasurer of the kingdom.

The next day the king again met the rebels, and again agreed to their demands. In the midst of the discussion, Tyler threatened to strike the Lord Mayor of London. He was himself struck down, and in a moment his followers were ready to begin a riot. There would probably have been a terrible slaughter if the boy king had not dashed away from his attendants to the front of the mob, and called out, “I am your king, and I will be your leader!”

This bold action of the king so pleased the mob that they returned to their homes well satisfied that they had won the victory. The rebellion in the other parts of the kingdom was sharply suppressed. A few of the leaders were executed, but on the whole there was little bloodshed after the uprising was over. Parliament refused to change the laws, so that for some time the condition of the peasants was but little improved.

**88. John Wycliffe.**—There was one man at this time who made determined efforts to better the condition of the poor. This was John Wycliffe, a priest and a teacher at Oxford University. He had felt that there was much in the church and in the priests that ought to be reformed; and one thing was the lack of the teaching and help that ought to have been given to the humbler people of the land. He formed bands called "Poor Priests" and sent them throughout the country. They wore bright red cloaks and went barefooted, with staff in hand, from village to village, preaching the gospel to the poor. These teachings were gladly accepted by the common people and had a great effect in awakening them to a sense of their condition. The followers of Wycliffe were afterwards known as "Lollards," from their practice of singing dirges at funerals.



JOHN WYCLIFFE

But Wycliffe will always be remembered, not so much for his connection with the "Poor Priests" as for his translation of the Bible into English. Hundreds of copies were multiplied by hand and scattered among the people.

**89. Geoffrey Chaucer.**—During the reign of Edward III, a priest named William Langland had written a long poem called "Piers Plowman," in which he described the struggles of the poor and their sufferings from cold and hunger. This poem was written in English, and is the first long poem written in such a way as to be at all easily read to-day. But the first English poet is really Geoffrey Chaucer, whose great work, the "Canterbury Tales," entitles him to be known as the "Father of English Poetry."

The book is made up of stories that a band of pilgrims tell in going to and from the shrine of Saint Thomas à

Becket of Canterbury. On this pilgrimage were all sorts of people, a knight, a squire, a monk, a nun, a scholar, a cook, a sailor, a parish priest, and many others; and therefore there are all sorts of tales. In those days it was thought perfectly right for a man to take any story that he had heard, tell it in his own way, and call it his own; Chaucer, accordingly, took the plot of a story from wherever he found it, but it is his way of telling a tale that we like especially. He makes us feel as if we had really seen the people he describes. That Chaucer, who spent



GEOFFREY CHAUCER

much time at court, should have written his poem in English is proof that neither Latin nor French, but English, made richer by many words from the French, had become the literary language of the land.

**90. Richard is deposed.**—From the time of the Peasants' Revolt, Richard was in constant trouble, both with his Council and with Parliament. In 1389 he dismissed the Council, and for the next ten years ruled alone. During the first seven years of this period, he governed well and the nation was contented and prosperous. Parliament enacted many important laws. Among these was a Statute of *Præmunire*, which was more stringent than one already passed in the reign of Edward III. This Statute forbade the bringing into England of any papal bulls or documents without the consent of the king. But Richard began to grow arbitrary and often took his own way without regard to the laws. In 1397 his wish to crush those who had opposed him led him to execute some of them and exile others. He had gathered around him unworthy favourites who wasted his money. The country was oppressed with grievous taxes, and men could not obtain justice in the courts.

Among others, Richard had banished his cousin, Henry Bolingbroke, and had seized his estates. In 1399, while Richard was absent in Ireland, Bolingbroke landed in

England and soon had an army. Richard met him, but did not venture to fight, because he could see that his own men were in favour of his cousin. Richard was compelled to resign the crown, and Parliament gave it to Bolingbroke, who became Henry IV. In a few months Richard died, probably murdered by some creature of Henry.

**91. Progress and conditions during the Middle Ages.**—During the last century Parliament gained greatly in influence. At first Lords and Commons had met together, but in the fourteenth century the peers withdrew and sat in a separate room. This increased the power of the



COSTUMES OF FOURTEENTH CENTURY: BISHOP, EARL,  
COUNTESS, AND JUDGE

Commons, because they had now to be consulted separately about every money grant. The Commons further increased their power by insisting that the king should grant redress of grievances before they would vote money; and again, some years later, it was conceded that the king's accounts should be carefully audited before he should have a new grant.

Among the nobles there was little change in the style of building from the Norman period, but in the towns, the mud huts of merchants and artisans were being replaced by houses of brick and stone. The floors were still of mud and

strewn with rushes. Streets were so narrow that the upper stories of houses on opposite sides of the street were often only five or six feet apart. A gutter ran along the street, and into this was thrown all the refuse. Labourers' cottages were still very rude. A swineherd's hut cost 5s. for building, 15s. for material. In this lived the family, the pig, the poultry, the dogs, and perhaps a cow.

Food was usually abundant, but coarse and of little variety. Wheat, oats, and barley were the principal grains, while scarcely any vegetables or fruits were cultivated. Coarse bread, meat, milk, fish, and eggs were the chief foods. The cattle were very small. Eight or ten yoke of oxen were often hitched to a single plough, and then only the surface of the soil was scratched over. From four to sixteen bushels of wheat an acre was the average crop. Wool, sheepskins, leather, tin, and cloth were exported.

The wages of a skilled artisan averaged about 5*d.* a day, while those of an agricultural labourer were about 3 or 4*d.* a day. This amount would, of course, purchase much more then than it would to-day. For example, a fat fowl sold for a penny and a half; a lamb for 4*d.*; wheat sold for 9*d.* a bushel.

Manufactures and commerce in the towns were generally controlled by the Guilds. These Guilds were first started on the continent and later adopted by the English. They were associations of merchants or of craftsmen, and were formed for the purpose of mutual aid and protection. Taking advantage of the king's need of money, they bought from him charters, privileges, and power to collect their own taxes and to make their own laws. With this growth the power of the Guilds increased, until they had in their hands to a great extent the government of the towns in England. The growth of the towns in municipal power is one of the most marked features of this period.

92. **Scotland.**—After Bannockburn the strife between England and Scotland was, for the most part, a border warfare. Robert Bruce was succeeded in 1329 by his infant son, David II, who was married to a sister of Edward III. He died in 1370, leaving no heir. King David's sister had

married the High Steward of Scotland; the name came to be spelled Stuart, and from this union sprang the Stuart line of kings. The history of Scotland during the next two centuries is a dark one. The power of the Stuarts was overshadowed by the Douglas family. The border between England and Scotland was a sort of lawless land where bloody raids were as common as hunting excursions, while the Highlanders were ready to swoop down upon the Lowlands whenever a favourable chance offered.

**93. Ireland.**—The story of Scotland is one of bloodshed and strife, but that of Ireland is yet worse. The wars waged by Scotland created some national spirit, but the bloodshed in Ireland was the result of savage civil strife. The English had made no real conquest. Even the coast district, supposed to be English, gradually assumed the manners and dress of the native Irish. To check this, the English, in 1367, enacted the Statute of Kilkenny, which forbade the English in Ireland to adopt the native dress, language, or names, and made it treason for one of English blood to marry one of Irish blood. But for many years the island was constantly the scene of civil strife between the English of the coast and the native races, and among the native chiefs themselves. Finally, Richard II went to Ireland in 1399 with a strong force for the purpose of restoring order in the unfortunate country, and received the homage of many chiefs. He might have worked useful changes had not the coming of Bolingbroke made him hasten back to England.

### SUMMARY

The last quarter of the fourteenth century brought about further changes for the better in the condition of the poor. The Peasants' Revolt showed that villeinage was gradually disappearing. Wycliffe's "Poor Priests" met the longings of the people to know more of religion, and his translation made it possible for an Englishman to read the Bible in his own language. Chaucer, last of the old poets and first of the new, wrote the "Canterbury Tales," not in Latin, but in English. Richard's rule became arbitrary and oppressive and he was deposed.

## CHAPTER V

### THE HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASTER

1399-1485

#### 1. HENRY IV. 1399-1413

**94. Opposition to Henry**—During the first nine years of Henry's reign, his energies were directed almost entirely towards keeping the crown which he had so easily obtained. The first attempt to dethrone him was made within two months of his accession by some nobles who favoured Richard and wished to restore him. The revolt was quickly suppressed and the nobles executed. Richard died soon after this, and his body was shown to the people, that all might know that he was dead. Then the Welsh who had never given up hopes of gaining their independence, rose in rebellion under Owen Glendower, a descendant of the native princes of Wales, and defied the whole power of Henry. Three times Glendower defeated armies led against him in person by the king, and in 1402 was crowned Prince of Wales.

In the midst of Henry's troubles with the Welsh, a war with France broke out, and the Scots, true to their ancient alliance, made several incursions into England. The most powerful baron in the north and one of the strongest supporters of Henry, was the Earl of Northumberland, whose family bore the name of Percy. As it was the duty of the Percies to guard England against Scottish invasion, they kept a large number of "retainers" or hired soldiers. At the battle of Homildon Hill, the Percies totally defeated the Scots, and captured many of the Scottish nobles. The king demanded that these captives, instead of being ransomed, should be handed over to him. The Percies were indignant, and when Henry refused to



ransom one of their kinsmen who had been captured by the Welsh, they joined with his enemies against him. Under Harry Percy, called "Hotspur" from his vigour and daring in battle, they united their forces with the Scots and marched south to join Owen Glendower. Henry met the combined armies at Shrewsbury in 1403 and defeated them. Hotspur was slain, and Glendower escaped to the mountains of Wales, where he maintained his independence until his death. There were a few more uprisings against Henry, but none of them gave him any serious trouble.

Peace with France was soon concluded, and by accident the young Prince James, the heir to the Scottish throne, fell into the hands of Henry. This insured freedom from Scottish invasion. For seventeen years the prince was kept a prisoner, and was then released to become King James I of Scotland.

**95. The House of Commons.**—Henry's need of strong support from the people, in order to retain his crown and to carry on his wars with Scotland and France, led to a great increase in the power of the House of Commons. The Commons secured the sole right to levy taxes, and before granting money to the king insisted on having evil practices remedied. They also secured for their members freedom of speech and freedom from arrest while in discharge of their duties. They had an accurate journal of their proceedings kept, so that there could no longer be any dispute concerning what they had done. Henry IV was so careful to rule according to law that he has been called the first constitutional monarch in the history of Europe.

**96. Persecution of the Lollards.**—The reign of Henry IV will always be remembered as the first reign during which any one in England was burned for heresy; that is, for not believing what the church taught. Henry was not a cruel man, but as he wished to be sure of the support of the church, he induced Parliament to pass, in 1401, a law that punished heresy by burning at the stake. This law, known as the Statute of Heretics, was aimed especially at the Lollards. The first one to die was a London clergyman,

who was a follower of Wycliffe. During this reign, however, there was only one other death at the stake.

**97. The Prince of Wales.**—The victory over the Percies at Shrewsbury was due largely to the bravery of the Prince of Wales. Shakespeare, in his play "King Henry IV," has described the prince as a wild and dissolute young man. This is doubtful, but if it is true, Prince Henry promptly laid aside his folly when serious work was to be done. At the age of eighteen he became a member of his father's Council, and gained an experience which proved very useful to him when, five years later, he ascended the throne. The king, who had suffered long from a troublesome disease, died in 1413.

### SUMMARY

Henry's lack of hereditary title to the throne opened the way to opposition and conspiracy. The Welsh rebelled, trouble with France arose, and the sympathy of Scotland with the French led to border forays. The House of Commons greatly increased its power. During this reign two men were burned at the stake for heresy.

## 2. HENRY V. 1413–1422

**98. Suppression of the Lollards.**—Henry V was sternly religious, and followed his father's policy in suppressing heresy. The leader of the Lollards was now Sir John Oldecastle, Lord Cobham, who had been a close friend of the king when Prince of Wales. He was tried and condemned to be burned, but before the sentence could be carried out, he escaped. His followers formed a plot to kill the king and his brothers, but their plans were found out,



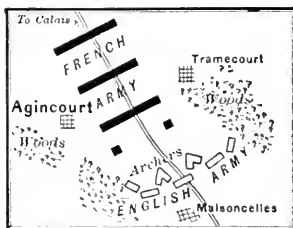
HENRY V

and thirty-nine of them were captured and put to

death. A few years later Oldecastle also was taken and hanged. After this the Lollards were driven out of the towns, their books and their writings were burned, and little more is heard of them in England.

**99. The Hundred Years' War is renewed.**—At this time the government of France was in the hands of a weak king, and Henry seized the opportunity to revive his ancestral claims to the French throne. The nobles were anxious for an opportunity to win glory, and, moreover, although Henry had become reconciled to most of the enemies of the late king, especially to the Percies, he felt that if he occupied the attention of the nobles with a foreign war, they would be less likely to rebel against him.

In 1415 Henry landed with a large army at Harfleur, near the mouth of the Seine, and after a terrible siege captured the city. Though he had lost half his men by famine and sickness, he resolved to march overland to Calais. An army of about forty thousand Frenchmen blocked his way at Agincourt, a little north of the field of Crécy. The battle was fought on clayey ground that had just been ploughed. The evening before it had rained, and the earth was so wet and soft and sticky that the knights in heavy armour could hardly have made their way across the field on foot; and when they attempted to ride, the horses sank to their knees. The knights were not cowards, and they did their best to press near to the English, but each one of the archers had a long, sharp stake, which he thrust into the ground in front of him while he shot; and try their best, the French could not get through the forest of stakes. Ten thousand French were killed, and several thousand were made prisoners by the little English army of probably six thousand men.



BATTLE OF AGINCOURT

The victory of Agincourt, great as it was, did not conquer France. Henry was compelled to return to England to recruit his army. Two years later he went back to France,

and took town after town. But Rouen held out bravely against him. Thousands of the peasants had gathered in the town for protection. The magistrates drove them out of the gates in order that food might be saved for the soldiers. Henry refused to allow them to pass his lines, and held them penned up outside the walls where old men, helpless women, and children starved to death. After six months the city was starved into surrender.

This success and a threatened attack on Paris drove the French to ask for terms of peace. A treaty, accordingly, was concluded at Troyes in 1420, by which it was agreed that Henry should marry the French princess Catherine, that he should be appointed regent during the life of the king, and that he should succeed to the throne. While making preparations for subduing the southern part of France, which held out against the peace, Henry suddenly died near Paris in 1422, after a reign of only nine years.

Henry V had become the hero of the English nation. The glory he had won in the wars at home was increased a hundred-fold by his success in France. His early death brought deeper sorrow to the nation than it had ever before felt for the loss of a king.

### SUMMARY

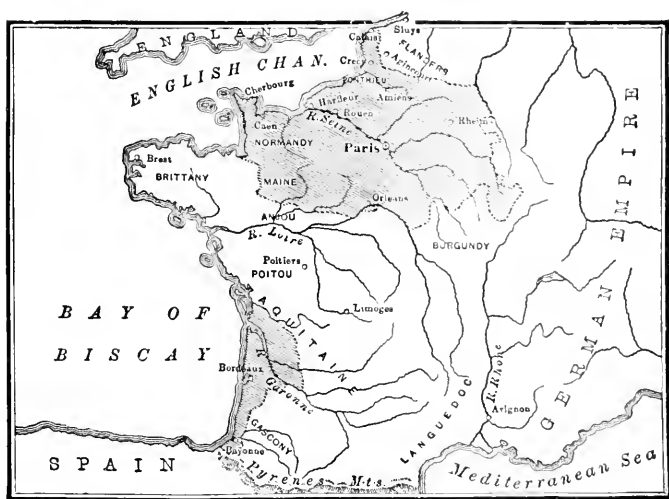
Henry V trusted those who might have been his enemies, and they became his friends. Henry put forth his ancestral claim to the throne of France. Agincourt and other victories won him a large sum of money, the hand of the French princess, the regency of France, and a promise of the crown at the death of the French king. Henry died before the French king, and the claim to the French crown descended to the infant ruler of England.

### 3. HENRY VI. 1422-1461

**100. The Hundred Years' War comes to an end.**—The infant son of Henry V was crowned in England, and, after the death of the French king, in France also. The war against Charles VII, the son of the late king, went on under the command of a brave and capable man, the Duke

of Bedford, uncle of the young king. The French were discouraged, and made little resistance as the English army marched south from Paris, capturing town after town. Finally the English and their allies, the Burgundians, came to the city of Orleans on the Loire. If this city fell, the cause of France would be lost.

But help came from an unexpected source. If the French soldiers could be inspired with confidence in themselves they might yet win. The inspiration came to them



FRENCH TERRITORY HELD BY THE ENGLISH IN 1429

through a little peasant girl of Domrémy in Lorraine, named Joan of Arc (Jeanne d'Arc).

When Joan, in the remote village where she lived, heard the horrible tales of destruction wrought by the English, and when she saw that no one was able to lead the French against them, it seemed to her that she was chosen by God to deliver her country. As she thought about it more and more, she believed angels came to her, saying, "Go, Joan, and save the king! Lead him to Rheims to be crowned and anointed!" There was an

old prophecy of which Joan had heard—that a maiden of Lorraine should save the kingdom. And she believed that she was the maiden.

At last, when her native village had been destroyed by the Burgundians, she made her way to the French king's court.

Soon the news spread among the French soldiers that a maiden had come from heaven to save France. Clad in armour and mounted on a white horse, she was placed at the head of an army to relieve Orleans.

With shouts of triumph, the French assaulted the towers built by the English besiegers before the city, and carried them. The English commanders gave up in despair, and the next day retreated. The maid urged a hot pursuit, and inflicted another severe defeat on the enemy. She led the king to Rheims, the old coronation city of France, and there in the great cathedral, July 17th, 1429, she saw with joy the crown placed upon his head. She now led the triumphant French armies to the siege of Paris, but the attack was a failure,



STATUE OF JOAN OF ARC  
Place des Pyramides, Paris

and she herself was wounded. After this she met with little success, and she felt that her mission was accomplished.

In the following spring the Burgundians took Joan prisoner and sold her to the English. She was tried as a witch and condemned to be burned. The French king made no effort to save her. She died declaring to the last

that the voices which urged her to go against the English came from God, and "Jesus" was the last word she uttered before the smoke and flame stopped her voice for ever. An English soldier standing by cried out in terror, "We are lost! We have burned a saint!"

The final defeat of the English was at hand, for the French spirit of patriotism had at last been aroused. Bedford was compelled to return to England, and during his absence the French gained rapidly. After his death, the Burgundians and French united against the English, and Paris was soon won back. A truce was made, and the young English king, Henry VI, married Margaret, a princess of Anjou. But before long the French reconquered Normandy and some coast towns, and England, out of all her possessions, was allowed to retain only the little town of Calais. The Hundred Years' War was now at an end (1453). The ambition of two warlike kings, Edward III and Henry V, had cost the country untold blood and treasure, and brought in the end only loss and shame.

There were, however, some good results from the French wars. One was that the power of the House of Commons was more and more increased. The kings needed much money, and as the only way to obtain it was through the Commons, they learned that the best way to procure what they wished was to obey the will of the people. Another important result was that a strong national pride was developed. The knights had learned to respect the yeomen; and now that the yeomen had found that they too were esteemed of worth in the land, they had less jealousy of the knights.

**101. Discontent in England.**—Nevertheless there were several reasons why many people in England were discontented and ready for a change in the government. One reason was their indignation that after so much fighting the French lands should have been lost. Another reason was that men who voted for members of Parliament were not allowed to vote freely; and, worst of all, as the king grew up, although he was quiet and gentle and kind-hearted, he had no idea how to rule a

kingdom. There were courts of justice, to be sure, but the jurymen were frequently chosen simply because they were friends of one of the contestants, and if they did not vote for his side, they were in danger of being beaten or killed on the way home. The people also had a special grievance. Owing to bad methods of farming, the soil had become impoverished, and large tracts which had been the homes of the poor were fenced in and turned into sheep pastures. Wool brought a good price, and less labour was required to look after the flocks than to cultivate the soil.

The discontent of the people with the way in which the government was carried on, led to a rebellion which broke out in Kent in 1450, under the leadership of Jack Cade, an Irish adventurer. The royal forces were defeated at Sevenoaks, and London opened its gates to Cade and his lawless followers. The rebels began to murder and pillage, but on a promise of pardon left the city. Cade was shortly afterwards killed, and the rebellion suppressed. In spite of the promise of pardon the rebels were punished with merciless severity.

In 1453, just as the French war ended, the king's mind failed him, and from then to the end of his life, he was subject to fits of insanity. In the same year an heir to the throne was born. Then people were utterly discouraged. Even those who had felt that it would be better to bear their troubles patiently, as long as Henry VI lived, could not endure the thought of another infant king and the troubles that a long regency would bring.

**102. The Wars of the Roses.**—When Henry IV was crowned, the claims of Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, who was descended from the third son of Edward III, were set aside. Edmund had died, but his sister had married her cousin, and they had a son named Richard, Duke of York. As Richard's father and mother were both descended from Edward III, and his mother came from an older son than the one from whom Henry was descended, many people felt that he had a strong claim to the throne. When Henry became insane, the Duke of York was made Protector, with



the thought that he should succeed to the throne. But the birth of a young prince, and Henry's restoration to health shattered the Duke of York's hopes; at last he decided to maintain his rights by war. Thus arose a series of wars between the two rival houses of York and Lancaster for the kingship. They lasted with brief intermissions for thirty years, and are called the Wars of the Roses, because the badge of Lancaster was the red rose, and that of York the white rose. As the struggle was waged chiefly between the nobles, it did much less damage than might have been expected.

The commerce and progress of the country were scarcely interrupted. The people as a whole did not care very much which royal house held the throne, but they were tired of a weak government and they desired a king with sufficient force to rule his kingdom.

The first battle of the Wars of the Roses was fought at St. Albans in 1455, and the Yorkists were victorious. Five years later, at Northampton, Queen Margaret, the recognized leader of the Lancastrians, who was fighting for the rights of her young son, was defeated and forced to flee. She quickly raised another army and in turn routed the Yorkists at Wakefield. In this battle the Duke of York was killed; but his son, Edward, at once put himself at the head of the Yorkist forces, defeated the queen at Mortimer's Cross, and marching on London,



was there, with the consent of Parliament, crowned as Edward IV.

### SUMMARY

The long minority of the king made efforts to hold the French throne unavailing, and at the close of the Hundred Years' War in 1453, Calais was the only bit of France that still belonged to England. Although in this long war, different ranks had learned a mutual respect, and the power of the Commons had increased, because the kings were obliged to apply to them for the large sums of money that were needed, there was much discontent in England. Finally, the failure of the king's mind and the prospect of another child ruler opened a way to Richard, Duke of York, to seize the throne. The fierce Wars of the Roses then began. Richard was slain, but his son became King Edward IV.

#### 4. EDWARD IV. 1461-1483

**103. The Wars of the Roses continued.**—In the meantime, Margaret had recovered from the defeat at Mortimer's Cross, and, after a victory over the Yorkists at the second battle of St. Albans, marched southwards. Edward, loyally supported by the people of London, and with the assistance of the powerful Earl of Warwick, advanced to meet her. The two armies met in 1461 at Towton, near York, in the midst of a blinding snowstorm. This was the most important battle of the war. The Yorkists were victorious, but thirty thousand Englishmen lay dead on the field. The army of the Lancastrians was scattered, and Margaret, with her husband and son, fled to Scotland. The queen, however, was not discouraged, but continued her efforts. She succeeded in obtaining aid from the king of France, and advanced from Scotland with an army. But she was again defeated; Henry was captured and imprisoned in the Tower of London.

The Earl of Warwick, by whose aid Edward had been raised to the throne, naturally expected to have control of the government, and when the king took the matter of his marriage and appointments to offices into his own hands, the earl was greatly offended. Edward married Elizabeth

Woodville, a widow of no great rank, and bestowed vast estates and titles upon her numerous relatives. Not only Warwick, but the other great Yorkist nobles were very angry at seeing members of this family receiving greater honours than the first lords of the country. Other actions of Edward followed which Warwick regarded as insulting to him personally. He was so incensed that before long he met Margaret in France, and with her planned to invade England. Edward was rudely aroused from his indolence when Warwick landed in England in 1470. He had only time to slip away with a few followers to the coast, and board a ship bound for Flanders. Warwick now brought King Henry out of the Tower, and recrowned him with a great deal of ceremony. The ease with which Warwick made and unmade kings has gained for him the name of the "King-maker."

But Edward had not been idle. He soon landed in England with an army raised in France, and defeated Warwick at the battle of Barnet. The "King-maker" met his death on the field. Margaret, who landed later with another army, was in turn defeated at the battle of Tewkesbury. The young Prince Edward was put to death, Margaret was made prisoner, and Henry VI was again confined in the Tower, where he was shortly afterwards murdered.

**104. Edward's government.**—Edward was again on the throne, and he seemed to feel that he was now entitled to enjoy himself. As he did not wish to call a Parliament, he originated a plan for obtaining funds in such a way that no one would dare to object. This was to invite wealthy men to make him a present, or *benevolence*, as he called it. By means of the confiscation of estates and forced loans, Edward was enabled to rule without calling a Parliament, and to make himself very powerful.

Edward's dissolute life made him old before his time. He knew that the nobles hated him, and that he had disappointed the hopes of the people. He became weary of life, and died, worn out, after a reign of twenty-two years.

**105. Printing is introduced into England.**—The most important event of this reign was, perhaps, the introduction of printing into England. In 1477, William Caxton set up a press at Westminster. He was a native of Kent, and had travelled in Germany and Flanders, where he learned to be a printer. Printing from movable types had been invented in Germany about thirty years before it was introduced into England. In all Caxton issued about sixty volumes, many of which he translated himself from the French or the Latin. The people of that time looked upon the printing press as a curious toy, little dreaming of the wonderful changes that it was destined to make in the history of England before the close of the next century.

**106. Literature.**—During the one hundred and thirty years preceding the end of Edward's reign, there had been too much fighting going on for a people to write; but they were interested in many more subjects than in earlier times, and every one that could afford such luxury had bought books, though these had been so expensive that a collection of thirty volumes was looked upon as a valuable library for even a wealthy gentleman to possess. People were still composing ballads; for while few felt like writing books, yet the excitement and the sudden changes did arouse people to compose short, strong ballads, which tell a story in so few words that each one seems almost like a sudden battle-stroke. But the people continued to sing the old ballads over and over again, frequently changing some of the words, and that is the reason there are often several versions of the same story.

### SUMMARY

The Wars of the Roses continued, and Henry was taken prisoner, but Edward's quarrel with the "King-maker" led to the temporary restoration of Henry. At last Warwick was slain, Henry was again imprisoned, and Edward was on the throne. To obtain money for his pleasures, he originated "benevolences." The great event of the reign was William Caxton's introduction of printing into England. Few books were written, but many ballads were composed.

## 5. EDWARD V. 1483

107. **The short reign of Edward V.**—Richard, Duke of Gloucester, the late king's brother, was a prudent and far-seeing man, but he thought little of sacrificing those who stood in the way of his ambition. He was slightly deformed, but was good-natured and well liked by the people. He was also an able soldier, and had fought bravely for his brother; but there is no doubt that he kept steadily before himself the design of securing the crown. When Edward IV died, his eldest son, Edward, a boy of twelve, was proclaimed king. Richard was made Protector and ruled with the assistance of a Council.

In order to carry out his designs, Richard secured possession of the persons of Edward and his younger brother, the Duke of York, and confined them in the Tower. After the princes were in his hands, he did not conceal from those nobles who were willing to stand by him, his intention of becoming king. He prevailed upon Parliament to declare that the marriage of Edward IV had not been legal, and that, therefore, his children could not inherit the throne. Several people who might have stood in his way were executed, and at last Parliament offered him the crown. He did not, however, feel safe so long as the two princes in the Tower were alive. The story was spread that they had mysteriously disappeared, but every one believed that Richard had killed them. No one dared to ask questions; but many years afterwards some workmen found two little skeletons buried at the foot of a staircase in the Tower, and it has been thought that they were those of the murdered princes.

## SUMMARY

After the death of Edward IV his brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester, was made Protector. Richard was determined to secure the crown, and did so, and the two young princes met their death in the Tower.

## 6. RICHARD III. 1483-1485

108. **The end of the Wars of the Roses.**—During his short reign, Richard ruled wisely and well. He abolished “benevolences” and treated the people fairly and justly. For the first time, he had laws translated into English and printed. In regard to printing he made an especially good law; though foreigners could not trade in England without paying a tax, yet any one who wished to write, print, bind, or sell books might do so as freely as if he had been born an Englishman.

It is possible that if it had not been for the belief that he had murdered the princes, Richard might have remained on the throne without any effort being made to depose him; but, after this, both the nobles and the common people were every day more and more determined not to submit to his rule. The leading men of the kingdom now set to work in earnest to find a man strong enough to dethrone the king.

There was one Lancastrian claimant to the throne whom neither Edward IV nor Richard III had been able to reach. This was Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, whose mother was descended from Edward III. He had long been living in exile; now some of the nobles planned to have him return and head a rebellion against Richard.

Henry Tudor's first attempt to enter England ended in failure. His fleet was scattered by a storm, but in the summer of 1485 he came again, landing at Milford Haven on the coast of Wales. As Henry's father was a Welshman, the people readily joined him. Richard mustered an army twice the size of Henry's. But when the two armies met on Bosworth Field, Richard saw that he was betrayed; for part of his forces went over to the enemy and another part refused to fight. Richard and a few faithful men charged the enemy. His quick eye caught sight of his rival's standard, and with a shout of “Treason!” he put spurs to his horse and dashed on, hoping to kill Henry in a hand-to-hand fight. The standard-bearer fell beneath his sword, but Richard was unhorsed. At last, after fighting bravely on foot,

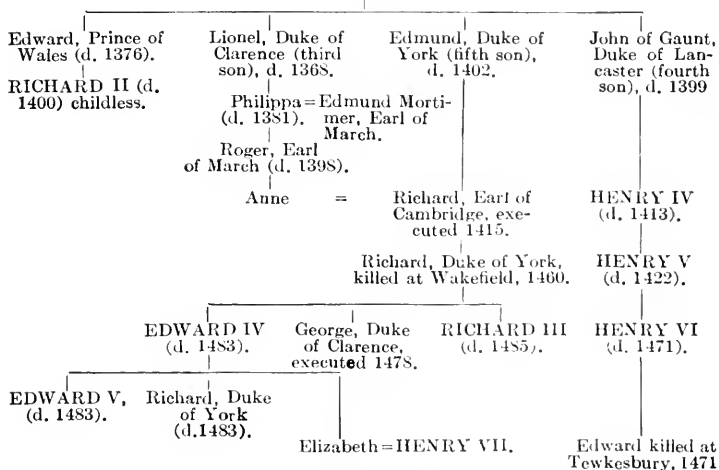
he fell, bleeding from a dozen wounds. His battered crown was found near by, and was placed upon his rival's head while the united armies echoed the shout of "Long live King Henry!" Thus ended the Wars of the Roses.

### SUMMARY

Richard III secured the crown by usurpation. He ruled well, but public opinion against him grew rapidly, and after a reign of two years he was slain at the battle of Bosworth, and Henry Tudor of the House of Lancaster became king. Bosworth was the last battle of the Wars of the Roses.

### THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK

EDWARD III  
(d. 1377).



NOTE.—After the death of Henry V, his widow married a Welsh gentleman, named Owen Tudor. Their son, Edmund, Earl of Richmond, married Lady Margaret Beaufort, a great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt, son of Edward III. Their eldest son was Henry VII.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE TUDOR SOVEREIGNS

1485-1603

#### 1. HENRY VII. 1485-1509

**109. The first of the Tudors.**—Henry VII was now on the throne, and as his grandfather had been a Welshman, named



HENRY VII

Owen Tudor, he, his son, and his three grandchildren, who in turn succeeded to the throne, are known as the Tudors. Although Henry could make no good claim to the crown through descent, his victory at Bosworth gave him a claim by conquest. This claim was legalized beyond a doubt by Parliament, which made him king and fixed the succession in his heirs. Shortly after he came to the throne, he

married Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV, and thus secured the good-will of the Yorkists. Some one has truly said that England at this time needed a constable to keep order, and that Henry VII was that constable. He had no desire to win glory in war. He loved power, and he saw clearly that to secure this and to give good government to England, he must crush the power of the nobles, and keep the country at peace.

**110. Increase of the king's power.**—In one respect England was at this time an easy country to rule, for the clergy desired a strong government, and many of the powerful nobles who might have opposed the royal sway, had been killed in the Wars of the Roses. The other nobles had much less



power than their grandfathers had had; for now that so little of the old feudalism survived, they could not easily call together men to fight in support of whatever cause they chose. Henry weakened still more the power of the nobles by forbidding them to maintain bands of men wearing their uniform, the punishment being a heavy fine, or imprisonment. This law against "Maintenance and Livery," as it was called, removed an evil which had existed for many years and had grown to serious proportions during the Wars of the Roses.

Another cause of the weakening of the power of the nobles was a change in the method of fighting. During the Norman period the charge of a body of armour-clad knights was irresistible; but English archers had long since learned to shoot an arrow so swiftly that, at close range, a knight's armour was no protection. Then, too, the introduction of gunpowder had made a still greater change. Although the smaller firearms were still very crude, cannon were made powerful enough to batter down stone walls, thus enabling the king to destroy even the strongest castles. Moreover, as cannon were very expensive, few but the king could afford to keep them; in fact, Henry had in his own control all the cannon of the state.

Formerly, when any great noble was charged with an offence, he was tried by the courts in his neighbourhood, and was thus frequently able to escape punishment by compelling both the judge and the jury to do his will. The Star Chamber Court, which consisted of two chief justices and certain members of the Royal Council, was



COMPLETE SUIT OF PLATE  
ARMOUR, FIFTEENTH CENTURY

established by Henry to bring powerful offenders to justice. Any nobleman who broke the laws or took part in rebellious plots against the king, was tried and punished by this new tribunal with as little fear as if he were a peasant. The court was known as the Star Chamber, because stars were painted on the ceiling of the room in which it was held.

But perhaps the strongest reason why Henry was enabled to increase his power so materially was that he had the general support of the people. It was the nobles who had wrested the Great Charter from John and who had opposed the tyrannical kings, but they had used their power to oppress the people. Now that the people were stronger and knew their strength, they felt that their best protection lay in upholding the power of a king who did not fear to govern in their interests, and who was strong enough to keep peace in the land.

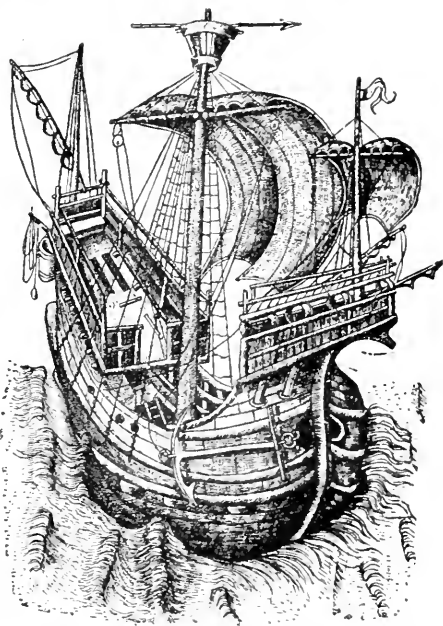
Of course, there were some rebellions, but none that Henry needed to fear. A boy was once brought forward with the claim that he was the nephew of Edward IV, but not many believed in him and he was soon taken prisoner. It was easily found out that his name was Lambert Simnel, and that he was the son of a baker at Oxford. Henry was amused rather than angry, and told his officers to take the boy to the kitchen and let him work there in peace. Not long after, a young man named Perkin Warbeck, who had been trained to personate the young Duke of York, who had been murdered in the Tower, was put forward as a claimant for the throne. Many of the Irish and of the Scots were inclined to help him, and his efforts lasted actually for five years. Finally, he was shut up in the Tower, and afterwards beheaded.

**111. Henry's methods of raising money.**—At the same time that Henry was bending all his energies towards increasing his power, he was also putting forth every effort to fill the royal treasury. He feared to alienate the people as a whole by taxing them too severely, and, moreover, he could not impose any general tax without the permission of Parliament. As he greatly preferred not to call a

Parliament, except when really necessary, he adopted methods of raising money which made him independent of that body, and at the same time kept those men in subjection who were likely to prove dangerous.

With Parliament not in session and the nation as a whole in his favour, Henry could venture to take from the rich, and this he did. He called for the "benevolences" which Edward IV had originated and Richard III had abolished.

One Cardinal Morton is said to have invented a plan known as "Morton's Fork," by which Henry could obtain money from any one that had it. If a man lived expensively, the king's agent would say to him, "You are spending so much on yourself that you may rightfully be required to contribute to the expenses of your sovereign." If a man lived simply and without extravagance, the agent would say, "Your living costs you so little that you must have enough laid by to make a generous gift to the king." Thus a man was sure to be caught on either one tine of the fork or the other.



OCEAN SHIP OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY

Henry was a lover of peace as well as of money, and took part in no wars of consequence. On one occasion he persuaded Parliament to make a large grant to carry on a war with France; but as soon as the tax had been collected, he made a treaty of peace with the French, and kept the money

himself. When he died, he left a fortune of about £2,000,000 sterling, equal in our money to-day to at least \$90,000,000.

**112. Commerce and exploration.**—There was no English navy in the fifteenth century for the protection of commerce. Piracy was common, and merchant vessels went armed. Fur-trading was now begun with the coasts of the Baltic, and, in the west of England, companies were formed to engage in the fisheries around the coasts of Iceland. Domestic trade also was protected and prosperous.

The introduction of the mariner's compass into Europe during the fifteenth century had enabled navigators to sail far from land and to venture into unknown seas. It was during this reign, in 1492, that Columbus made for Spain his wonderful voyage westwards to what he supposed was eastern Asia. A few years later, in 1497, John Cabot, a Venetian living in Bristol, with his son Sebastian, discovered Newfoundland. The private diary of Henry VII bears this entry, "To him that found the new isle, £10." Another entry says, "To men of Bristol that found the isle, £5."

**113. The death of Henry.**—As Henry was securely established on his throne and was recognized as a rich and powerful monarch, his children were sought in marriage by other royal families. His eldest son, Arthur, married Catherine of Aragon, daughter of the king of Spain. Arthur dying the next year, negotiations were begun for marrying the young widow to Henry, the second son of Henry VII. The king's eldest daughter was married to James IV, the king of Scotland.

Henry died in 1509, after a reign of twenty-four years, and was buried in Westminster Abbey in a splendid chapel which he had built for the purpose. He left to his surviving son, Henry, a strong, well-organized, and orderly government.

## SUMMARY

With Henry VII began the "personal monarchy" of the strong-willed Tudors. Henry had so firm a hold on the crown by the decree of Parliament, by the result of battle, and by his marriage, that the

efforts of pretenders to the throne were useless. To obtain money he resorted to "benevolences" and other questionable schemes, but any possible revolt of the nobles against a king who controlled the cannon of the country was hopeless. He left a full treasury and a peaceful, united country, well disposed to obey its sovereign.

## 2. HENRY VIII. 1509-1547

114. **A popular king.**—When Henry VIII came to the throne, the country had every reason to rejoice. He was a talented and athletic young man, "as handsome as nature could make him." He was well educated, fond of books and of music, and even wrote songs, some of which have come down to us. He had frank, winsome manners, enjoyed hunting and bowling, and, in the use of the bow he surpassed the archers of his own guard. One of his first acts was to punish the men who had been the instruments of his father in extorting money from the wealthy classes under the form of law. After a slight delay, he fulfilled the marriage treaty made by his father, and married Catherine, his brother's widow, who was six years his senior. This bound him to Spain, then a powerful kingdom. England was at peace, the treasury was overflowing, and the people were happy and hopeful. Nothing seemed to show that the reign of Henry was to be the most eventful in the history of England up to that time.



HENRY VIII

115. **Henry's foreign policy.**—Henry soon became ambitious to play a part in affairs outside of England, although the wisest of his councillors had learned that it was best to avoid being mixed up in foreign wars. Two years after he came to the throne he joined Spain and Germany in an attempt to drive the French out of Italy, but no important results followed. Later he helped

the German emperor to win one battle against the French in Flanders, "a greater victory than which," he wrote to Catherine, "was never won anywhere." A panic seized the French knights and they fled without striking a blow. The battle is commonly known as the "Battle of the Spurs," because the French knights fled so rapidly; it is said that over three thousand were slain in the rout.

The attack on France stirred up Scotland, and James IV, who was Henry's brother-in-law, led an army into England. It was terribly defeated at the battle of Flodden Field, through the skill of the English general, the Earl of Surrey. The Scottish king, the chief of his nobility, and ten thousand of his men, were left dead on the field.

Henry was shrewd enough to see that his European allies were using him merely for their own advantage, and he made peace with France. Soon afterwards, Francis I became king of France, and Charles V succeeded to the throne of Spain. These three young and ambitious sovereigns were now leaders in the affairs of Europe. Both Francis and Charles were anxious to secure the good-will of Henry. Charles visited him in England, and Francis invited him to a meeting in France. The meeting with Francis took place on a plain near Calais, and so great was the magnificence displayed on this occasion that the meeting-place was called the "Field of the Cloth of Gold." In spite, however, of all the promises made to Francis, Henry's help was given to Charles; but afterwards, when Francis was taken prisoner, Henry went to his aid, though he exacted liberal payment for his assistance. Henry's aim was to keep the power of Francis and of Charles as nearly equal as possible, lest one or the other should become too strong for England to resist.

**116. Cardinal Wolsey.**—Henry was largely indebted to the efforts of his chancellor, Thomas Wolsey, for such success as attended his policy on the continent. Wolsey was the son of a wool merchant at Ipswich, where he was born in 1471. He graduated from Oxford at the age of fifteen and a few years later became chaplain to Henry VII.

He was employed in many affairs of state, and so well did he perform his duties that his rise was rapid. At the age of forty, he was a member of the Royal Council of Henry VIII. In 1514 he was made Archbishop of York. The following year he was raised to the dignity of cardinal and became lord chancellor of the kingdom. Three years later, at the suggestion of Henry, he was appointed papal legate, a position which made him the personal representative of the Pope in England. For nearly twenty years the affairs of the country were in Wolsey's hands; in both church and state he was supreme. He devoted himself to carrying out the wishes of the king and to increasing the greatness of the country. Though he lived in a state of great magnificence in his palaces at Whitehall and Hampton Court, he was thoughtful of the poor and tried to do for them what was just and kind. With neither the nobility nor the people, however, was he popular. The nobles were jealous of his power, and scorned his humble origin; the people disliked him because he taxed them heavily in order to raise money for the king. His enormous power, too, made him haughty and arrogant. The Venetian ambassador wrote home that when he first came to England, Wolsey would say, "*His Majesty* will do so and so;" a little later he would say, "*We* shall do so and so;" and finally he said, "*I* shall do so and so."



CARDINAL WOLSEY

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**117. The Renaissance.**—Henry was interested not only in statcraft, but in the wonderful new learning that was spreading over the world. In 1453, the year that the Hundred Years' War closed, the Turks captured Constantinople. Many learned Greeks lived in this city, and they went away

to Italy, especially to Florence. Long before Cæsar went to Britain, the Greeks were a remarkable nation. They had great poets and historians and philosophers, and their sculptors did finer work than any one has done since. For centuries people had forgotten all this. When the Greeks came to Florence and taught the Florentines to read their language, men began to realize what valuable old books there were in the world. This new interest in the old knowledge is called the Renaissance, or the *new birth*. It spread rapidly over the continent; for printing had come at just the right time to help people to procure the old manuscripts in book form. England soon became interested, for English scholars, like Colet, went to Italy to study, and brought books and knowledge back with them to their own country. The study of Greek was introduced into the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, and many schools were founded throughout the country. Famous scholars, Erasmus and others, visited England and taught in the universities and schools, and did much to spread the new learning. The influence of the Renaissance had been felt in England even before Henry came to the throne, and he gave it his support. Wolsey, too, was strongly in favour of the new movement; he established a school at Ipswich and founded a college, now known as Christ Church College, at Oxford.

**118. Henry as a theologian.**—Henry was ambitious to be known as a literary man and a theologian. Before long the opportunity presented itself. In Germany, Martin Luther, who was a monk and professor at the University of Wittenburg, had declared that certain abuses existed in the church, which ought to be reformed. He had refused to submit to the authority of the church, and the Pope had excommunicated him. Many people in Germany supported Luther, and thus the Protestant Reformation began. Henry was a loyal son of the church and wrote, in 1521, a book defending the position of the Pope. As a reward for this he received the title of “Defender of the Faith.”

**119. The Act of Supremacy.**—After Henry had reigned for eighteen years he began to be greatly troubled about the



succession to the throne. Only one of his children, his daughter Mary, had survived. Up to this time, however, no woman had ever ruled over the English people. Although special permission had been granted by the Pope to perform the ceremony, Henry declared that he had done wrong in marrying his brother's widow, and he now wished to obtain a decree from the present Pope dissolving the marriage. It would be easier to have confidence in his scruples of conscience, if he had not already chosen the woman whom he wished to take in Catherine's stead. She was a beautiful young girl named Anne Boleyn, the daughter of an English nobleman, and was a maid of honour to the queen. When she appeared at court, Henry was greatly pleased with her beauty, and determined that she should be his wife. He knew that it would be difficult to secure the decree from the Pope, but he had confidence that Wolsey could obtain it for him.

At first Wolsey was in favour of the decree, thinking that Henry would marry a French princess, and so increase the influence of England on the continent; but when he found that Henry was determined to marry Anne Boleyn, he did all he could to dissuade him. At last, however, he yielded to the king's urgings and did his best to secure a favourable decree from the Pope, Clement VII. The Pope was in a difficult position. He did not believe in the justice of Henry's claims, and, moreover, Catherine was the aunt of the powerful Charles V of Spain. Finally, he gave Wolsey and Cardinal Campeggio, the Italian Bishop of Salisbury, authority to try the case. There was a long delay, and no decision was given. Henry, thinking that Wolsey was the cause of the delay, poured out his wrath on his unfortunate minister. Wolsey was charged with having broken the law in acting as papal legate, although he had done so with the consent of the king. He was dismissed from the chancellorship, his property was forfeited, and he was required to retire to his archbishopric at York. Later a charge of treason was brought against him, but he died in 1530 while on his way to London to stand his trial.

That same year, Henry, at the suggestion of Dr. Thomas

Cranmer of Cambridge, decided to obtain from the learned men of the universities of Europe opinions as to the legality of his marriage with Catherine. Heavy bribes were used, and many opinions favourable to the king's contention were received. Still the Pope would take no action, and Henry resolved to defy him. As both the Parliament and the people of England had time and again shown determined opposition when the Pope had attempted to intervene in matters affecting the church and the kingdom, Henry felt that he could depend on them for support. In 1531 Parliament declared that the clergy were guilty of a violation of the law in recognizing Wolsey as papal legate. The clergy were terrified and offered to pay an enormous fine. Henry forgave them, but compelled them to acknowledge the king as the "Supreme Head of the English Church," and to agree not to legislate in religious matters without his authority. The clergy were also forced to declare formally that the marriage with Catherine was invalid; Cranmer, who had been created Archbishop of Canterbury, pronounced the decree in 1533. Henry had already married Anne Boleyn, and a few days after Cranmer's declaration she was publicly crowned.

The Parliament which met in 1529 lasted for seven years. It was entirely submissive to the will of the king and passed whatever laws he wished. Acts were passed prohibiting all appeals to Rome, and the payment of money in any way to the Pope. Another law, called the Act of Succession, declared Henry's marriage with Catherine unlawful, and that with Anne lawful, and provided that the children of Henry and Anne should succeed to the throne. The Act of Supremacy, passed in 1534, declared Henry to be the Supreme Head of the Church in England, and also declared that any one who refused to acknowledge this headship was guilty of high treason. The separation between the English church and Rome was now complete.

Henry, however, still retained the title of "Defender of the Faith," and showed little sympathy with the doctrines of the Protestants, as the followers of Luther were called. Many Protestants had made their way into England, and

their teaching was spreading throughout the kingdom. The result of this peculiar position of things was, that if a man was a Protestant he might be burned as a heretic; while if he was a Roman Catholic and held that the Pope was the head of the church, he might be beheaded as a traitor. Some of the best men in England were put to death for refusing to agree with the king.

Among those who suffered death for their belief were Sir Thomas More and John Fisher, the aged Bishop of Rochester.

More was one of the most learned men of his time, and had succeeded Wolsey as lord chancellor. When, however, Henry married Anne Boleyn, More resigned his office and retired to his home. He would not admit the legality of the king's marriage with Anne, although quite willing to acknowledge Anne's children to be the lawful successors to the throne, because Parliament had made them so.



SIR THOMAS MORE

The king was furious, and More was sent to the block. Not only England, but all Europe was shocked at his execution.

**120. The suppression of the monasteries.**—When Henry began his reign, much of the land in the kingdom was in the possession of the church. The cathedrals, monasteries, chapels, and abbeys held estates, by the income of which they were maintained. Though the monasteries were extremely wealthy, their influence over the people had greatly declined. Wolsey had already closed some of the smaller houses and used their revenues to found schools and colleges; now the idea occurred to Henry that he might close all the monasteries and take their estates for himself.

The task of suppressing the monasteries was intrusted to Thomas Cromwell, who for some years after the death of

Wolsey, was the chief adviser of the king. Cromwell had been in the service of Wolsey and had assisted him in the dissolution of some of the smaller monasteries. After the fall of Wolsey, he gained the favour of the king, and it is said that it was by his advice that Henry had defied the power of the Pope. Cromwell was given full control and proceeded ruthlessly to carry out his instructions. The king's agents



THOMAS CROMWELL

visited and inspected the monasteries and reported that they found great irregularities in their management. This was accepted as just ground for closing them. The smaller institutions were swept away by an Act of Parliament passed in 1536, and three years later the remaining monasteries were confiscated. The monks and nuns were turned adrift, although some of them were pen-

sioned. The estates not retained for the king's own use were given to his friends, or sold at a tithe of their value. The splendid buildings were stripped of everything of value; books and manuscripts were burned; images were thrown down; windows of beautiful stained glass were shattered; and only the ruined, moss-grown walls now remain to tell the story of the past. So passed away an institution which, in its time, had played a great part in English life.

During the greater part of the Middle Ages the monks and priests were the only men of any learning. They wrote books and copied manuscripts; they were the architects who planned and built many beautiful churches and abbeys; they looked after the spiritual welfare of the people; they made men's wills and distributed the property among the heirs; they frequently adopted orphans and educated them; they alone had schools where poor men's sons might learn to read.

they alone gave alms to the poor. The monks were almost the only farmers who drained swamps and set good examples in agriculture. The abbeys were, in some parts of the country, the only places where travellers could procure refreshment and lodging. In short, the monks, nuns, and priests were an intimate part of the daily life of every family, and dark as the Middle Ages were, they must have been yet darker but for the civilizing and protecting care of the church.

So bitter was the opposition to the spoliation of the monasteries, that serious rebellions broke out in 1536 in the north of England. At one time nearly one hundred thousand men were under arms. The rising was called the Pilgrimage of Grace, because every soldier bore a badge with a device to represent the five wounds of Christ. The pilgrims demanded that Cromwell be removed, that the monasteries be restored, and that the authority of the Pope be recognized. The king made some indefinite promises; but when all was quiet and the northern towns fortified, the leaders of the rebellion were tried and put to death.

**121. Suffering of the poor.**—This destruction of the monasteries, many hundreds of them, was one of several causes that brought distress upon the poor of the kingdom, for the hungry had always been certain of a meal at the monastery gate. There were other reasons for the suffering. The king had put so much cheap metal into the coins that prices had risen. If prices and wages had gone up at the same rate, the poor would not have suffered so severely; but wages rose slowly while prices rose rapidly, and there was great destitution in the merest necessities of life. Another reason lay in the increase of sheep-raising and the inclosure of more and more land for this purpose. Worse than this, the commons, where the poor had always had the right to pasture a cow or keep a pig, were also inclosed for the landlord's sheep. This seizure of the commons, taken together with the loss of help from the monasteries, made the poor who were old and feeble suffer severely. Many of those that were strong and well and could find no work became robbers and beggars. This led Parliament to pass many harsh laws to prevent

these poor people from becoming a danger to the rich. No effort was made to reform the "sturdy beggar" or to provide work for him, and no plan was made to assist the aged and the sick; the whole aim of the law seemed to be to get rid of troublesome people.

**122. Henry's marriages.**—In the meantime, Henry was again considering the question of marriage. He had become tired of Anne. She had brought him a daughter, Elizabeth, but he still had no son. It was not difficult to find people who would give the testimony that the king desired, and the result was that after three years of marriage, Anne was accused of misconduct and beheaded. The next day the king married Jane Seymour; Parliament met at once and declared that the Princess Elizabeth, as well as the Princess Mary, should never inherit the crown.

Jane Seymour died, leaving one child, who was named Edward, and Henry now had a son to whom he could leave the crown. But he was determined to marry again. Cromwell was anxious for an alliance with the North German princes, most of whom were Protestants, and, accordingly, arranged a marriage with Anne of Cleves, a German princess, whom he described to Henry as being very beautiful. Anne was far from beautiful, and the king, when he saw her, could with difficulty be prevailed upon to go through the marriage ceremony. The North German princes refused to enter into an alliance with Henry. His wrath now turned on Cromwell, who was accused of high treason and sent to the block. After a few months Henry obtained a divorce from Anne, on the ground that, as he had married her against his will, he had not given his full consent. He had two more wives; Catherine Howard, who was charged with misconduct in early life, and beheaded, and Catherine Parr, who survived him.

**123. The new religion.**—The influence of the Reformation in Europe had already been felt in England, and there were many who believed that the changes in the church should be made not only in organization but in doctrine. Already, in 1538, Cromwell had ordered that a Bible be placed in every church, and that the people be urged to

read it. The next year, in order to "abolish diversity of opinions," the king, with the consent of Parliament, issued a new creed in Six Articles, asserting the main doctrines of the Roman Catholic church. With this "whip of six strings" Henry persecuted his people until the end of his reign. Any one who would not conform was to lose his property for the first offence; for the second he lost his life. Hundreds of people were arrested, and during the rest of Henry's life, which stretched out eight years longer, several were burnt at the stake. In spite of this, however, there was at court a strong party in sympathy with the reformers, prominent amongst whom was Edward Seymour, the uncle of the young Prince Edward.

**124. Last years of Henry.**—The king now had three children: Mary, the daughter of Catherine of Aragon; Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn; and his only son, Edward, the child of Jane Seymour. His obedient Parliament agreed to allow him to fix the succession. He made a will in which he provided that, first, Edward should rule, then Mary, then Elizabeth. The king had grown, in his later years, to an unwieldy size, and suffered constantly from a painful disease. He died in 1547. His reign is chiefly to be remembered for the change he made in the government of the church.

### SUMMARY

Henry VIII came to the throne with the advantage of an unquestioned title and a full treasury. By his foreign policy, Henry avoided trouble with the continental powers. He ruled the land with an absolutism by which, indeed, quiet and order were secured, though the power of Parliament was greatly lessened. His interest in the new learning strengthened the influence of the Renaissance in England. His quarrel with Rome resulted in the complete separation of the English church from Rome. In this reign the sufferings of the poor were multiplied by the suppression of the monasteries, together with the spread of the custom of sheep-raising and "inclosing." Beggary and robbery increased in spite of severe penalties. By Henry's will the crown was to descend to Edward, Mary, and Elizabeth, in the order named.

## 3. EDWARD VI. 1547-1553

**125. Somerset is made Lord Protector.**—Edward VI, a delicate, studious lad, became king at the age of nine years. Henry VIII had, in his will, appointed a Council of sixteen men, who were to rule until the young king reached the age of eighteen. The majority of the Council were, however, reformers, and they at once disregarded the terms of the will, seized the power for themselves, and made Edward Seymour Lord Protector of the Kingdom. Seymour was now raised to the rank of Duke of Somerset.

**126. Trouble with Scotland.**—The first important event in the reign was a war with Scotland. After the battle of



EDWARD VI

Flodden, border raids were made both by the English and by the Scots. In 1542, at Solway Moss, a Scottish army, about to invade England, was scattered, in a moment of confusion, by a few hundred English horsemen under Lord Daere. James V was so disheartened at this disgrace that he died. He left the throne to his infant daughter, afterwards famous in history as Mary, Queen of Scots. Somerset now tried to arrange a marriage between Edward and the young queen. Perhaps

the marriage might have been arranged by a man of tact, but Somerset's plan was an invasion of Scotland. Crossing the border with a large army, he totally defeated the Scots at Pinkie, and desolated the country with fire and sword. But as the Scots sent their young queen to France, where she married the Dauphin, as the eldest son of the king of France was called, the English won no real advantage.



**127. Somerset and the church.**—Somerset had always been strongly in sympathy with the Protestant reformers, and now that he was in power, he was prepared to make changes in the church that would favour Protestantism. Edward, too, had been brought up in the ideas of the reformers, and gave him every encouragement.

Though the people, owing to the spread of Protestant doctrines, were perhaps more ready for changes than they had been in Henry's time, yet the duke went on with his innovations far more rapidly than the greater number were prepared to follow him. The Six Articles were repealed, and such changes made in the form of worship as robbed it of many of its old forms and ceremonies. In 1549 Parliament authorized a Book of Common Prayer, prepared by Archbishop Cranmer, for use in all churches. It was taken in large part from the old service of the church, but it was in English, and the sound of the words was strange and unfamiliar. Instead of introducing the prayer book gradually, the duke declared that it must be used at once in all the churches. There was strong opposition to this in many parts of the country. One Sunday, in the church of a little village in Devon, when the English service was read for the first time, the people compelled the priest to put on his robes and say the mass in Latin. The revolt spread fast through both Devon and Cornwall, but the insurgents were quickly dispersed.

Henry VIII had suppressed the monasteries, but there was still much land left in the hands of the smaller religious corporations. These were confiscated by Parliament and became the plunder of the Protector and his friends.

**128. Internal troubles.**—Besides the quarrel over church reform, there were increasing difficulties between the farmers and the wealthy landholders about the inclosing of lands and the rise in rents. And most serious of all, the decline of farming had made food scarce, and many of the poorer classes were in distress. Prices were high on this account, and the evils of debasing the coinage were being more and more felt. Four shillings would not buy so much as one would in the time of Henry VII. So many labourers were

out of work that wages were low even when paid in this debased coin. A law was passed to punish vagrants, but, in spite of this, the vagrants and paupers increased. The law could not make men work when there was no work to be done. The criminal class also increased at an alarming rate; in fact, the more severe the laws, the more criminals there seemed to be. The discontent among the people broke out in rebellion in 1549. In Norfolk sixteen thousand men gathered under the lead of Robert Ket, a wealthy tanner. They proceeded to break down the hated fences and to kill the fat sheep and deer within. They were successful for a time and defeated the troops sent against them. Finally, the Earl of Warwick took command of the king's forces and dispersed the rebels with ruthless severity.

**129. Northumberland's administration.**—Somerset sympathized with the people and was slow in taking severe measures to put down the Norfolk revolt. This led to his fall; his opponents in the Council gained control and his power passed into the hands of his chief rival, the Earl of Warwick, afterwards created Duke of Northumberland. Two years later Somerset was executed on a charge of treason.

Under Northumberland the spoliation of the church continued, and further changes in doctrine were made. The prayer book was revised, and made much as it is to-day, although some slight changes were afterwards made in the reigns of Elizabeth and Charles II. Some few among the extreme Protestants suffered at the stake for heresy, but there was no general persecution for religious belief.

**130. The succession to the throne.**—By the will of Henry VIII, if all three of his children died without leaving any heirs, the crown was to go to the descendants of his younger sister Mary. One of Mary's granddaughters, a gentle, lovable girl named Jane Grey, had married Northumberland's son. The duke, who had great influence with the young king, now planned to make her queen of England. He persuaded Edward to make a will, setting aside both Mary and Elizabeth and giving the crown to Lady Jane Grey. The king had never been very strong, and, soon after this, in his sixteenth year, he died.

One day, in 1553, Lady Jane was informed that Edward was dead and that she was to be queen. She was only sixteen years of age, beautiful, and remarkable for her learning and accomplishments. She cared only for her books and her husband, and begged to be left with them. But her father-in-law was determined to sacrifice her to his ambitious plans, which never had any chance of success. Protestants and Roman Catholics united to defeat him; even his own troops deserted him. Parliament declared in favour of Mary, and the people of London at once gave her their allegiance. Northumberland and two others were executed, and Lady Jane Grey and her husband were sent to the Tower.

### SUMMARY

The Duke of Somerset was made Lord Protector. Largely through his efforts, Protestantism gained great headway in England and a Book of Common Prayer was adopted. Somerset was overthrown by Northumberland and executed. The discontent of the people showed itself in several rebellions. Northumberland attempted to make Lady Jane Grey queen of England, but was unsuccessful.

#### 4. MARY I. 1553-1558

**131. Mary and the church.**—In a few weeks after the imprisonment of the "Ten-days' Queen," Mary was crowned. She had had an unhappy life. Until she was almost grown up, she was treated with all the respect that could be shown to the daughter of a powerful king. Then, after Henry's divorce, everything was suddenly changed. Her mother was sent away and she herself was forced into retirement. Her unhappiness had been so associated with the changes in the church that she could hardly help feeling some bitterness against those who had brought them about. She was determined to restore the church to the position it had occupied when Henry VIII came to the throne. Parliament was almost as obedient to her as it had been to her father. It repealed the laws of Edward VI affecting the church, and restored the Six Articles of Henry VIII. For a

time, however, the queen still retained the title of Supreme Head of the Church. There was but little opposition on the part of the people to these changes, largely because they had had little voice in the introduction of the reforms under Edward.

132. **Mary's marriage.**—In the meantime, Parliament was anxious that Mary should marry. Through the



MARY I

troublesome times of this age, the first thing in the minds of the nation seems to have been the wish for a firm, just control, and an undisputed succession to the throne, and they thought that if Mary had children, the crown would descend peacefully to them. They therefore wished her to marry at once. Parliament was anxious that her husband should be an Englishman, but when Charles V, king of Spain, proposed to her that she should marry his son Philip, she gladly

consented, and a marriage treaty was arranged.

Both the Parliament and the people of England strongly objected to the proposed Spanish match. They dreaded that, if the marriage should take place, they would be dragged into European wars to further the ambition of the king of Spain. Indeed so strong did the opposition become that there was a serious rebellion. Sir Thomas Wyatt roused the men of Kent, and for a time it looked as though he would succeed. But Mary acted promptly. She appealed to the people of London in a stirring speech and threw herself upon their protection. The next day twenty-five thousand men enlisted, and Wyatt, though he entered

London and fought till almost deserted, was taken prisoner. Lady Jane Grey and her husband were now executed, along with Wyatt and about one hundred others. An effort was made to connect Elizabeth with the plot and she was sent to the Tower. Nothing could be found, however, to show that she had had anything to do with it, and she was released.

The next Parliament consented to Mary's marriage with Philip, but did not give him any place in the government. The marriage took place in July, 1554. Mary was devoted to her husband, but Philip did not care for his wife and he was disappointed that he was not allowed any part in public affairs in England. After little more than a year's stay in England, he returned to Spain.

**133. Religious persecutions.**—Mary desired most strongly a complete reconciliation with the Pope, and, for the most part, Parliament was willing to do as she wished. The laws passed in Henry's reign against the supremacy of the Pope were repealed, and the statutes for the burning of heretics were revived. On one point, however, Parliament was unyielding; it would not give back the lands that had been taken from the monasteries. The greater part of these lands had been divided among various noble families, and in many cases the land had changed ownership more than once. Mary did not press this point, and Cardinal Pole was received in England as papal legate.

Mary's fervent zeal that all should conform to the old faith now led her to enforce relentlessly the laws against heretics. Among the first to suffer were Bishop Latimer, and Ridley, who had once been Bishop of London. "Play the man, Master Ridley," said Latimer, as he was dying, "we shall this day light up such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out." Then came Bishop Hooper, Archbishop Cranmer, and about three hundred others. But the persecution had not the effect that Mary desired; it rather turned the sympathy of thousands towards the faith of those whom they had seen die so bravely.

**134. The last years of Mary's reign.**—Spain had been engaged in a war with France, and although England was not interested in the quarrel, Mary, through the influence of

her husband, was drawn into the war. The one possession that England still held in France was Calais. It had once been strongly fortified, but the defences had been neglected. The French, in 1558, attacked and captured the town. England no longer owned a foot of ground in the kingdom across the Channel. Mary grieved deeply. "When I die," she said, "Calais will be found engraven on my heart."

Mary's reign was drawing to a close, and the kingdom was in a most unhappy condition. Pirates swarmed along the coast; the navy was neglected; fortresses were unrepared; there was no money in the treasury; commerce had almost ceased on account of wars and pirates. The people were weary of her rule. Her husband had neglected her; and the poor queen, long troubled by disease and now prostrated by the loss of Calais, died within the year.

### SUMMARY

At Mary's accession the church was restored to the position that it had occupied when Henry VIII came to the throne. The proposed marriage of Mary with Philip of Spain roused much opposition and led to a rebellion under Sir Thomas Wyatt. Parliament, however, gave way and the marriage took place. Mary's fervent desire that all should conform to the old faith led to religious persecutions. During a war with France, Calais was lost to England.

### 5. ELIZABETH. 1558-1603

**135. Elizabeth's difficulties.**—The task before Elizabeth when she came to the throne was not an easy one. The treasury was empty, the people were discontented, and the whole nation was divided on religious questions. England was at war with France and without proper means of defence. Further, the Pope would not acknowledge Elizabeth's right to the throne; indeed, Mary of Scotland had already laid claim to the title. England was not strong enough to stand alone should her enemies unite against her. Time must be gained to replenish the treasury, to settle the re-

ligious difficulties, and to unify and strengthen the nation. The queen set herself resolutely to face her difficulties.

**136. Elizabeth and the church.**—At the opening of Elizabeth's reign, the division between the religious parties in England had become so marked that it was impossible to satisfy all her subjects. Probably the greater number of them would have been satisfied to return to the system of Henry VIII. But Elizabeth went further. Her first Parliament, in 1559, passed an Act of Supremacy, which declared the queen to be "the Supreme Governor of the Realm" in matters of church as well as of state. The prayer book of Edward VI, with some revisions, was adopted, and an Act of Uniformity passed, forbidding the use of any other form of public worship. Although the laws against heresy were repealed, the people were required to attend their parish church on Sunday under penalty of a fine.

Only those who held office were asked to take the oath required by the Act of Supremacy. Most of the clergy accepted the settlement, but only one of the bishops would acknowledge Elizabeth to be the head of the church. The remaining bishops were deprived of their sees and imprisoned, the vacant bishoprics being filled with those who were in sympathy with the queen. In 1663, the doctrine of the church was embodied in "Thirty-nine Articles," to which every clergyman was compelled to



QUEEN ELIZABETH

subscribe. But the changes in the government and doctrine of the church were made so quietly that there was little excitement in the country.

**137. Elizabeth's foreign policy.**—Elizabeth was a skilful diplomatist, yet all her diplomacy was needed to carry the country safely through the troubled years at the beginning of her reign. Her plan was to keep her enemies divided, until England became strong. The gravest danger she had to fear was the possibility of an alliance between France and Spain, the two great Roman Catholic powers of Europe, for if such a combination had been formed, it is not probable that England at this time could have resisted successfully. But Elizabeth felt that the rivalry between these two nations was so bitter that they could not agree to take united action against her. Moreover, Mary of Scotland, the heiress to the throne of England, was now the wife of the Dauphin of France, and should she succeed to the English throne, she would unite in her own person the crowns of England, Scotland, and France. This would make France supreme in Europe and overshadow the power of Spain. The danger of such an alliance secured the neutrality of Philip, who was in fact anxious himself to enter into an alliance with England. In order to make certain of the aid of England in his plans for increasing the glory of Spain, he even proposed marriage with Elizabeth. Similar proposals came from Scotland and France. But Elizabeth for a time would give no definite answer to any of these offers of marriage; she had endless excuses for delay and postponement. She could, when the occasion demanded, decide promptly and act boldly; but this time her policy was delay, and this policy, in spite of the protests of her ministers, she pursued steadily, until the necessity to follow it no longer existed.

**138. Relations with Scotland.**—Peace was made with France in the summer of 1559, but shortly afterwards the French king died and the Dauphin succeeded to the throne as Francis II. Mary Stuart, who had already laid claim to the crown of England, was now queen of both Scotland and France, and there was every prospect of an alliance between



the two kingdoms for the purpose of dethroning Elizabeth. In Scotland a fierce religious struggle was in progress. The Reformation had gained such headway in that country, that the regent, Mary of Guise, the mother of the queen, was engaged, with the aid of French troops, in a desperate attempt to stamp it out. The leading Reformers had, in 1557, united in a league known as the "Lords of the Congregation," and offered a determined resistance. Their zeal was strengthened by the return of the famous John Knox, who was listened to by the Scottish people as they had never listened to any man before. Under his inspiration the people everywhere rose in arms. The Lords of the Congregation, who had now become strong opponents of a French alliance, appealed to England for aid. Elizabeth could not allow the French to become supreme in Scotland, and, accordingly, a fleet was sent to assist the Reformers, who were besieging the French in Leith. The French army was compelled to surrender. Finally, in 1560, a treaty was made at Edinburgh, by which it was agreed that the French troops should leave Scotland and that Mary should abandon all claims to the throne of England. Shortly afterwards Parliament established Presbyterianism as the religion of Scotland.



JOHN KNOX

In 1561, Mary, left a widow by the death of Francis, returned to Scotland to take up the reins of government. She was a Roman Catholic, but her promise not to interfere with Presbyterianism united the people in her favour, while her youth and beauty won all their hearts. Her presence in Scotland with her people at her feet was very disquieting to Elizabeth. While Mary was queen of France, Elizabeth was safe, as no Englishman wished a French queen to rule over his country. But now that Francis was dead and Mary on the Scottish throne, there was cause for alarm. Elizabeth did not intend to allow Mary to reach Scotland till she signed the treaty of Edinburgh;

but Mary refused to sign, and succeeded in reaching Scotland in safety.

Mary began her reign well, although she soon got into difficulties. She married her cousin, Lord Darnley, but he was so foolish and contemptible that she came to despise him. He was intensely jealous of her, and in a fit of rage, he murdered her private secretary, David Rizzio, almost in her presence. It was not many months before Darnley, too, was murdered. Whether the charge was true or not,



MARY STUART

many believed that the crime was committed by the Earl of Bothwell. He had just obtained a divorce from his wife, and when, shortly after the murder, Mary married him, many of her people believed that she had connived at the crime. The Scots were thoroughly aroused and took up arms. Mary called out the royal forces, but they refused to stand by her, and she was taken prisoner. She was carried to Lochleven Castle, and there she abdicated the throne in favour of her baby son. The baby, one year old, was proclaimed James VI of Scotland, and Mary's half-brother, Murray, was appointed regent of the kingdom.

Mary's friends, however, were not idle and planned her escape. This was soon effected, and in three days she was at the head of an army. In 1568 she met the forces of the regent at Langside, near Glasgow, and was defeated; she then fled to England, where she threw herself on the protection of Elizabeth. The English queen was in a difficult position; she did not dare to alienate the Protestants in England and in Scotland by restoring Mary to her throne; it was equally dangerous to allow her to escape to France, or to detain her in England. Elizabeth finally chose the latter alternative, and Mary was kept in honourable confinement.

**139. The enmity of Spain.**—At this time Spain was the greatest power in the world, and her strength was owing largely to her enterprise on the seas, and especially to her discoveries and conquests in America. The vast wealth of the mines of Mexico and Peru enabled the Spanish king to carry out many great plans for the extension of his kingdom. Philip now ruled over Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, and America. He was ambitious and intolerant, and was determined to make all men under his rule think alike on matters of religion. His great plan was first to conquer the Netherlands, then France, and finally England.

The attempt to subdue the Netherlands provoked a fierce resistance, which all the power of Spain could not crush. In France, Philip joined the Catholic party to prevent the French Protestants, or Huguenots, from helping the Dutch. This forced Elizabeth to send aid to Holland; for if Philip should conquer the Dutch, he would join France in attacking England, and attempt to put Mary on the throne. An army was sent in 1586, under the Earl of Leicester, but he was not a skilful soldier, and little was accomplished. In an attack on Zutphen, his gallant nephew, Sir Philip Sidney, the noblest gentleman in England, fell. When he lay wounded on the battlefield, a cup of water was offered him; but, seeing another suffering soldier near him, he said, "Take it; thy necessity is greater than mine."

**140. The English seamen.**—But England had begun an attack on Philip which threatened to ruin his treasury. English sailors were beginning to cruise in the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico, and seize the Spanish treasure ships from America.

The Spaniards claimed for themselves not only Mexico and the places where they had settled, but the whole of America, and they treated Englishmen who ventured into these western seas as intruders and robbers, who deserved the severest punishment. But the profits of the trade were so great that Englishmen took the risks and defied the Spaniards. Elizabeth also encouraged among her seamen a desire to discover new lands, and this had a good effect on the spirits of bold men. Nor must it be forgotten that ever since the

time of Columbus, every great navigator cherished a hope of finding a short path to China by sailing west from Europe. The desire for wealth, hatred of Spain, a hope of new discoveries, and a desire to find a short route to China, all united in attracting courageous men to a seafaring life. The result was that England was developing a race of hardy seamen, bold, daring, and courageous, who were afraid neither to venture into unknown seas nor to fight their enemies at home and abroad.

Among these daring seamen two stand out conspicuously, John Hawkins and Francis Drake. Hawkins was a young sailor of Devon, who had traded with the Spaniards in the Canary Islands. In 1562 he made a voyage to the coast of Africa, and when there the idea came to him to buy a shipload of prisoners from the native chiefs and to sell them in the West Indies as labourers. He made several voyages in connection with this trade, exchanging the slaves for



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

sugar, ginger, pearls, and hides, which found a ready sale in Europe. The queen herself invested in his second voyage and shared the profits. Hawkins was knighted by Elizabeth, and became captain of the port of Plymouth.

Francis Drake was also a man of Devon. In 1577, with five ships, he set sail for South America. He coasted southwards and passed through the Straits of Magellan. Off Chile he took a Spanish treasure

ship, and further north he overhauled the great treasure galleon which was sent annually to Spain. Sailing still northwards, Drake landed on the California coast, then struck

westwards across the Pacific, returning to England in 1580 by way of the Cape of Good Hope. He was thus the first Englishman to make the circuit of the globe. No honour was too great for the successful navigator. He was knighted, and Elizabeth herself attended a banquet in her honour on board his ship. Philip, of course, was furious and demanded the return of his treasure. But the queen, after allowing Drake and his crew a liberal share, and accepting a portion for herself, stored the remainder in the Tower until she and Philip should have a settlement. This settlement, however, was never made.

**141. The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.**—From the time that Mary had fled to England, she had been a continual source of trouble. The Duke of Norfolk, the head of the Roman Catholic nobility of England, wished to marry her, but his plan was discovered and he himself was imprisoned. In 1569 a rebellion broke out in the north under the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland. The rising was unsuccessful; the two earls escaped to Scotland, but many of their followers were executed. In the next year, Pope Pius V excommunicated Elizabeth, and absolved her subjects from their oath of allegiance. This made the position of the loyal Roman Catholics exceedingly difficult; if they remained loyal to their queen, they must be disloyal to their church. The action of the Pope led to harsher treatment of the Roman Catholics in England. In 1571 Parliament passed an Act declaring any one guilty of high treason who attempted to deprive Elizabeth of her throne, and a further Act prohibiting, under the severest penalties, the introduction of papal bulls into England. But even these stringent laws did not put a stop to the plots to place Mary on the throne. After the failure of a plot in 1572, the Duke of Norfolk, who was proven to have been concerned in it, was executed.

In 1580 an attempt was made by the Jesuits, the great Roman Catholic missionary organization, to win England back to the ancient faith. Whether their aims were religious or revolutionary, the government was too angry or too anxious to inquire. They were driven from the kingdom,

imprisoned, reduced to poverty, tortured, executed. It is said that two hundred priests were put to death.

In 1586 the last and most desperate conspiracy to release Mary was formed. Anthony Babington and several young men who were connected with the court agreed to assassinate Elizabeth. The Duke of Parma, Philip's chief general, was to invade England, marry Mary, and rule the country as the vassal of Spain. The spies of Sir Francis Walsingham, the secretary of state, whose duty it was to guard the life of the queen, managed to gain the confidence of the conspirators, and to make copies of the letters passing between them and Mary. When Walsingham had obtained evidence that the Scottish queen was a party to the plot, the conspirators were seized and fourteen of them put to death. Mary was spared for a time, but it was believed that Elizabeth's life would never be safe while her rival was alive. She was accused of having consented to the assassination of Elizabeth, tried by a commission of peers, found guilty, and beheaded in Fotheringay Castle, February 8th, 1587.

**142. The war with Spain.**—Philip had long been making preparations to invade England; he now put forth every effort to achieve his object. He had been angry at Elizabeth's refusal of his hand in marriage, and had been very much incensed at the help given by the queen to his rebellious subjects in the Netherlands. Moreover, he had to revenge the loss of his treasure ships and a long series of insults offered to his possessions in America. As long as England was unconquered he could not realize his dream of bringing Europe back to the old religion, nor could he overlook the treatment given the Roman Catholic priests in England. The execution of Mary removed every trace of hesitation from his mind.

But if Philip had waited nearly thirty years to wage war against the stubborn English queen, and if every year of waiting had given him additional reasons to begin the conflict, every year had also made England stronger and better prepared to meet him. He must now fight a new England. Never had any country made more rapid progress

than was made in England from 1558 to 1588. The nation had grown from childhood to a lusty manhood. The population had increased because there had been peace. The wealth of the people had multiplied many times, while the frugality of Elizabeth had left her people free from burdensome taxes. The discoveries of Drake and other navigators had extended commerce, and had trained as bold a race of seamen as ever sailed the seas. But strong as the nation was in men, money, and other material resources, its greatest strength was the bold, confident, and loyal spirit of the people. They had differences over religion, but they were united in a love for home and country. Englishmen, both Roman Catholics and Protestants, supported the queen, and men whose fathers would have burned one another for a difference in creed, stood side by side to resist the attack of Spain.

Night and day the Spanish shipbuilders worked. A great fleet was made ready at Lisbon, and at Cádiz other warships were being built, while every day more arms and provisions were collected for the conquest. The Spanish term for fleet was *armada*, and the Spaniards were so sure that England could not resist their attack that they called their fleet the Invincible Armada. Early in 1587 it was well known in England that the Armada was ready to sail. Drake put to sea with a small fleet, sailed boldly into the harbour of Cadiz and burned, sank, or destroyed more than eighty of Philip's new ships. He then captured a large Spanish treasure ship near the Azores, and returned to England. This delayed the Spaniards for a full year, and that year gave England ample time for preparation.

The English navy consisted of only thirty warships, not one of them so large as the smallest of the Spanish fleet. The government asked London for five thousand men and fifteen vessels, and the answer came, "We entreat you to accept from us ten thousand men and thirty vessels." Every little seashore village sent out its ships. Men of all ranks and from all over the land hurried to join the forces that were gathering together near London. Lord Howard of Effingham, a Roman Catholic, was made admiral of the

fleet, and Drake served under him as vice-admiral. A land army formed at Tilbury, on the south coast, and the militia mustered in swarms. All England was aroused.

Philip's plans for 1588 were far-reaching and complete. He had ready at Dunkirk, under the Duke of Parma, an army of 30,000 veteran troops supplied with boats for transport. These were for the actual conquest of England, and they were to be brought over under the protection of the greatest fleet that up to this time had ever put to sea. It consisted of 130 men-of-war carrying 20,000 soldiers and 8,000 seamen. These vessels were, for the most part, immense floating castles with several decks, and they



THE SPANISH ARMADA

mounted 2,500 cannon. The great Spanish admiral, Santa Cruz, had just died, and Philip thrust the supreme command upon Medina Sidonia, a grandee of the highest rank, but of very little ability and with absolutely no knowledge of either ships or war.

On July 29th the sails of the Armada were seen from the English coast, and soon the beacon fires flashed the news all over the country. The Armada came on in gallant style. The stately Spanish ships were formed in a crescent stretching seven miles from horn to horn. The English allowed them to move up into the Channel, and then, with a favourable wind, they slipped out of Plymouth and hung



on their rear. Now began a running fight that lasted over a week. The saucy English boats could fire four shots for the Spaniards' one. They would boldly draw up under an immense Spanish galleon, fire a broadside, and draw away to fire another before the unwieldy Don could get ready for action. Several Spanish ships were sunk and some driven on the coast.

The Spaniards now anchored off Calais, and Lord Howard decided on a plan to drive them into the open sea. He therefore sent eight fire-ships among them with the tide at midnight. The Spanish sailors cut their cables and put to sea in confusion. The English followed, and never gave up the fight until their last pound of powder was spent. By this time the Armada had passed the Straits of Dover and had left Dunkirk and Parma's thirty thousand men far in the rear. Many of the Spanish ships were captured or helpless, and few of them had either ammunition or sufficient food. To return by the English Channel was out of the question; so the Spanish admiral decided to lead the fleet home by sailing around the north of Scotland and Ireland. But the wind and the waves proved even more destructive than the English, and thousands of Spaniards were dashed upon the rocks of the Hebrides and the Irish coast. About fifty ships and ten thousand famished, fever-stricken men reached Spain.

The joy in England over this glorious victory knew no bounds. With the defeat of the Armada the supremacy of the seas passed from Spain to England, and from that day to this no power has been able seriously to question her rule.

England now turned invader, and for the rest of Elizabeth's reign Spain was mercilessly plundered. Her colonies were raided, her towns sacked, and countless wealth carried away to England. Drake died in 1596, while on one of his cruises against the Spaniards, and Hawkins died about the same time. In these wars many valiant deeds were done. Among the most celebrated is the fight of Sir Richard Grenville and his small ship against fifty-three Spanish ships of war. For fifteen hours he held out, until his ship

was barely afloat, his powder gone, forty men killed, and himself desperately wounded. Tennyson tells the story in stirring verse in his ballad of "The Revenge." The war was brought to an end by the sack of Cadiz in 1596.

**143. Church troubles.**—During the latter part of Elizabeth's reign the Roman Catholics were treated with great severity. Priests and laymen who would not abandon their religion were banished, and about fifty, including two women, were put to death. The Court of High Commission was established to settle questions relating to the church. This commission bore with special hardness upon a new body now coming into notice in England, the Puritans.

These Puritans were extreme Protestants who took special objection to the pomp and ceremonies which were retained in the church service. They also objected to the great power given to bishops and other church officers, and to the large revenues attached to some clerical positions. So long as England lay under the shadow of a great war with Spain, the Puritans were treated with forbearance. Hundreds of their clergy conducted the church service very much as they pleased. But as Elizabeth grew stronger and better able to assume a bold tone towards her enemies abroad, she gradually asserted her authority to bring the church worship to a uniform standard. In 1593 severe penal laws were passed by Parliament. Clergy who refused to obey the strict letter of the law regarding the service were turned out of their churches, and, in some cases, imprisoned. Laymen who refused to attend church were imprisoned; if they refused to conform within three months they were banished, and, if they returned to England, they were put to death. The law was so rigorously enforced that many of the Puritans left the country to await in exile the beginning of a new reign.

**144. Discoveries and colonization.**—In addition to Hawkins and Drake, many other Englishmen made voyages of discovery during Elizabeth's reign. Sir Martin Frobisher made many voyages to the New World, and tried to reach India by the "North-west passage," north of North America;

Thomas Cavendish followed Drake in 1586, the second Englishman to sail around the world; Sir Walter Raleigh planted a settlement in America and named it Virginia, in honour of the virgin queen; Sir Humphrey Gilbert made many voyages of colonization, and perished near the coast of America while on one of his expeditions. All of these men and many others equally daring had great faith in the future of England as a sea-power. As Raleigh said on one occasion, "Whosoever commands the sea commands the trade; whosoever commands the trade of the world commands the riches of the world, and consequently the world itself."

**145. Ireland.**—The English had never been able to subdue permanently more than a small strip of the Irish coast around Dublin. There was constant strife between the English settlers and the native Irish. Henry VII had sent Sir Edward Poynings with an army, and he caused the Irish Parliament to pass, in 1494, the famous Poynings Act, by which all laws passed by the English Parliament were declared to be in force in Ireland, and all measures, before being submitted to the Irish body, had to be approved by the king. Henry VIII, except in religious matters, treated the Irish with kindness and consideration, and tried to reconcile the Irish chieftains to his rule. In the latter part of Elizabeth's reign, the young Earl of Essex, a favourite of the queen, was sent to Ireland to put down a rising in Ulster begun by the Irish Earl of Tyrone, who invited the Spanish to help him. Essex wasted his time, and nothing was done. On his return to England, he attempted to stir up a rebellion, but was arrested and beheaded. Lord Mountjoy, who succeeded him in the Irish command, put down the rebellion with cruel severity. A terrible famine forced the Irish to submit, and a vigorous effort was now made to destroy the tribal system and establish English courts.

**146. Elizabeth's ministers.**—For forty years the most trusted adviser of Elizabeth was her able and far-seeing minister Sir William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, and with him was associated Sir Francis Walsingham and Sir Nicholas Bacon. Although she had many favourites, such as the

Earls of Leicester and Essex, on whom she lavished honours and attentions, yet on any serious question of state she



LORD BURLEIGH

always turned to her trusted ministers. Frequently she did not accept their advice, and indeed in many cases her wisdom was greater than theirs; but she knew that in what they advised, they had at heart her own interests and those of England. When Burleigh died he was succeeded by his son Sir Robert Cecil, who remained chief minister until the death of the queen.

**147. Character of Elizabeth.**—It was evident in 1603 that the reign of the great queen was fast drawing to a

close. Lord Burleigh and the Earl of Leicester were dead, and she mourned the fate of Essex. She sat for days propped up with pillows and refused to go to bed. When Sir Robert Cecil told her she must go to bed, she turned upon him in a rage. "Must!" she said; "is must a word to be addressed to princes? Little man, little man, thy father, if he had lived, durst not have used that word." She died in 1603. Just before her death she expressed a wish that James of Scotland should be her successor.

Queen Elizabeth was well educated, witty, fond of handsome clothes and gorgeous pageants of all sorts. She was so vain that no one could praise her as much as she thought she deserved. She had a hot temper, and when she was angry she would beat her maids of honour and box the ears of her courtiers. She did not like to spend money, and

when her brave sailors were driving away the Armada, it was a great struggle to persuade her to spend what was necessary. Her worst fault was that her word could not be trusted. On the other hand, she really loved her country, and she meant sincerely to do her best for England. She chose wise men for her advisers. She was a Tudor and meant to have her own way, but she invariably yielded when she saw that she was acting against the wishes of the nation. She had many great qualities—wisdom, foresight, moderation; and these qualities were just the ones that the nation needed at that time to unite England and to make the country great in politics, discovery, literature, and in material and social progress.

**148. Parliament under Elizabeth.**—During the reigns of the early Tudors, Parliament was little more than an instrument for registering the personal will of the sovereign. In Elizabeth's reign, however, the House of Commons assumed an importance and independence that it had not possessed for many years. The members were no longer content to do as they were told, but vigorously insisted upon the full and free discussion of all public questions. There were but thirteen sessions of Parliament in the forty-four years of Elizabeth's reign, but on many occasions, during these sessions, the Commons ventured to dispute the will of the queen and even to register its protests against her actions. The representatives of the people in Parliament were beginning to think for themselves, and were not slow in giving expression to their desires.

In 1601 Parliament gained a conspicuous victory over the crown. Elizabeth, as much as possible, avoided taxing the people directly. One way she had of raising money was by the sale of monopolies. For example, the Earl of Essex was the only man in England who was allowed to sell sweet wines, and for this privilege he paid a certain sum to the queen. So many monopolies were granted that they became a great burden, and Parliament petitioned her to make an end of them. When she saw that Parliament was determined, she gracefully gave way and promised to remedy the abuse.

**149. Material progress under Elizabeth.**—Manufacturing increased rapidly during the reign of Elizabeth. During the bloody wars of Philip in the Netherlands many spinners and weavers fled to England; in one year alone the number was thirty thousand. Elizabeth welcomed them, and gave them lands, on condition that every one of them should employ at least one English apprentice. It soon came about that instead of England sending wool to Flanders and buying it back in the form of cloth, the cloth was made in England, and sold to the Flemish merchants, who again sold it to the merchants in the rest of Europe. Elizabeth also called in all the base coin in circulation, and had it recoined to make it worth its face value.

The English seamen were daring navigators, and carried the English flag through every sea. Commerce branched out in every direction; north-east to Russia; westwards to America; south-east to the Levant; eastwards to India, China, and Japan; and south along the coast of Africa. During the reign of Elizabeth the foundations for the commercial supremacy of England were laid broad and deep.

There was much improvement also in the agricultural districts. Wise laws were passed restraining the inclosure of land fit for agriculture; and improved methods of farming made the land more productive. The farmers were growing in wealth and importance.

**150. Social progress under Elizabeth.**—The reign of Elizabeth was a time when great riches were often easily acquired. This led to lavish spending and to many changes in the customs of the people. They began to build better houses, and many of the fine old homes in England to-day were partly built in that period. Glass was becoming common, and people had more sunlight in their houses. They ate more meat and spent vast sums on dress. Parliament, indeed, had to pass laws regulating the dress of the people. Wigs were worn by all who could afford them. Pewter dishes for the poor and silver for the rich were replacing those of wood. Houses were built with chimneys instead of with mere holes in the roof to let the smoke escape. The wealthy began to use costly tapestries to adorn the bare

walls, but the floors were still generally covered with rushes, which became very filthy. Pillows, which until now were considered fit only for sick women, came into common use. At first only the queen had a coach; the common method of travel was on horseback or in sedan chairs. Wood and coal formed the fuel; but it was not lawful to burn coal in London while the Parliament met, lest the smoke and gas would injure the health of the members of Parliament.

In the early part of Elizabeth's reign there were so many men out of employment that they were a constant menace to the state; they were discontented and ready at any time to break out in rebellion. A serious attempt was made under Elizabeth to deal with the problem. The country was growing more prosperous, and fewer men were out of employment, but still there was much distress. In 1601 a Poor Law was passed, by which each parish was compelled to support its own poor out of a rate levied on the landed property in the district. The money so raised was to be used in providing employment for those able to work and relief for those who were sick or infirm. This law was the basis of the system of poor relief in England until 1834.

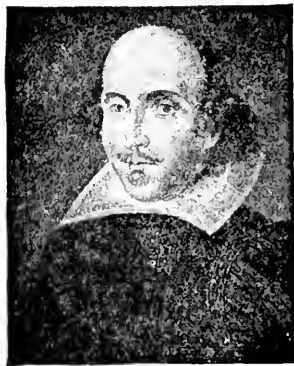
Hawking, hunting, and bull and bear-baiting were favourite amusements. There were many holidays. Then the country people gathered in the nearest village for shooting, wrestling, football, and quoits. These sports were followed by dancing, games, and masquerading, the whole concluding with a feast. Christenings, betrothals, weddings, and even funerals were made the occasion of much feasting. It was certainly a merry England in the time of Elizabeth.

**151. Literature under Elizabeth.**—The victory over the Armada gave the English nation a magnificent sense of confidence. A great widening of ideas came with the discovery and exploration of the New World. Every one was eager to make a voyage; and it is no wonder, for there were marvellous stories of a fountain in Florida whose waters would make an old man young again, of silver mines whose richness was without parallel, and of rivers whose waters rolled over precious stones. No one knew what miracle might come next. The English were eager and excited,

and their imagination was roused to the highest pitch. In most ages only a few men write well, but in those days many wrote so excellently that Elizabeth's reign is called the "Golden Age" of English literature.

There were many short poems and many plays. Nearly all the poems written in Elizabeth's time are light and merry and musical. Among them are many songs, as the English, even from the earliest days, liked to listen to music, and at this time everybody sang. Moreover, people would not sing nonsense; they would have real poetry for their songs.

One of the most famous poems of the day was a long one named "The Faërie Queene," by Edmund Spenser. He is sometimes called "the poet's poet," because his verse is so harmonious. It sounds musical, indeed, even to one who does not understand the words. The poem is a sort of double allegory, for the heroine represents not only goodness and beauty but also Queen Elizabeth.



WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE

Even better than the short poems were the plays. The old mystery plays went on far into Elizabeth's reign, though they were no longer acted by priests; but by guilds, or companies of tradesmen. There were no books that were at all like the novels of our time. It may be that life moved so rapidly with its discoveries and its victories, and that Englishmen were so eager and so enthusiastic that they could not be satisfied to listen to a story; they must see it acted out before them. As the age went on, the characters of the plays became more and more like real men and women. There were also changes in the manner of writing. Before this, most authors had felt that the lines of a play must rhyme, but Marlowe ridiculed the custom and wrote his plays in the unrhymed verse that Shakespeare uses. A little later, Ben Jonson wrote not only many plays, but also a kind of

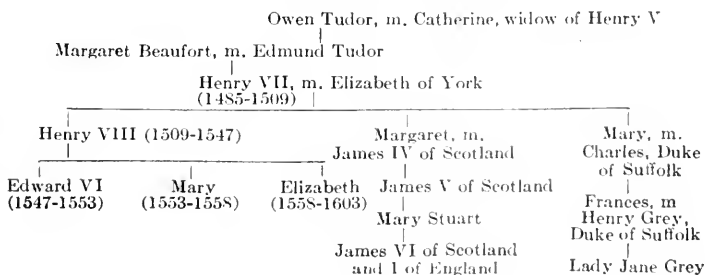


drama called a masque. The masques had hardly any plot; but audiences enjoyed them because they were beautiful and poetical, and because they had elaborate scenery, while the regular plays had scarcely any. Many authors wrote plays and exceedingly good ones, but the greatest of all these authors was Shakespeare, partly because he could use words so skilfully that no one seems able to improve upon his way of expressing a thought, but chiefly because he knew better than any one else just how different persons would feel and act under different circumstances. One maker of plays was almost as good as he in one respect, and another in some other respect, but Shakespeare was greatest in all respects.

### SUMMARY

The accession of Elizabeth was welcome to England, but the poverty of the crown, the three opposing religious parties at home, and the foes of the country abroad, made her position a difficult one. After the conspiracy in behalf of Mary, Queen of Scots, had been terminated by her execution, and the attempts of Spain to conquer England had been ended by the defeat of the Armada, a sense of freedom filled the land. England was "Mistress of the Seas," and she had no longer any fear of becoming a province of another country. The discoveries of Drake, Frobisher, Hawkins, and others widened the boundaries of the known world. There were many men who could fight, many who could govern, many who could write, and not a few who seemed able to succeed in one line as well as in another. There was also an increasing freedom of thought. Of greater value than victories on sea or on land was the literary ability that was in this reign so widely diffused, and that found its highest manifestation in the plays of Shakespeare. An important factor in the greatness of England was the queen herself, with her intellectual ability, her wisdom in choosing advisers, and her sincere love of England.

### THE HOUSE OF TUDOR



## CHAPTER VII

### THE HOUSE OF STUART

1603-1714

#### 1. JAMES I. 1603-1625

152. **Character of James I.**—The heir to Elizabeth's throne was James, son of Mary, Queen of Scots, the child to whom she had resigned her kingdom when she was a prisoner at Lochleven Castle. He was now thirty-seven years of age, and from his looks and manner no one would have guessed that he was the son of Queen Mary. Awkward and clumsy in person, he was a most undignified figure for a king. Though he was confident of his own judgment and impatient of advice, he was easily led by favourites, on whom he lavished money without stint. His mind was naturally acute, and he was vain of his learning which was really very great; but he never won the sympathy of the people whom he had come to govern.



JAMES I

153. **James and the church.**—The first question in the minds of James's new subjects was, which church he would favour. The Roman Catholics hoped that out of regard for his mother's belief, he would make life in England easier for them, and the Puritans hoped that he would have a feeling of fellowship with them, because he had been brought up among the Scottish Presbyterians. One thousand Puritan ministers at once presented him with a

petition asking that they might be allowed to preach without a surplice, to have more and better preaching, and a stricter observance of the Sabbath.

James summoned representatives of the Puritan ministers to meet, at Hampton Court, an assembly of bishops to discuss the question in his presence. When he saw that some of the Puritans wished to have no bishops, he showed determined opposition. "No bishop, no king," said he, and not an inch would he move from that position, for he believed that if they thought a church might be governed without bishops, they would next think a kingdom might be governed without a king. He finally lost patience and declared that the Puritans should conform to the church of England, or he would "harry them out of the land, or else do worse." The one benefit that came from this conference was a new translation of the Bible. This was completed in 1611, and is the one now in common use.

**154. The Gunpowder Plot, 1605.**—The Roman Catholics were greatly disappointed when they found that the severe laws against them were not to be relaxed, but, in fact, were to be more rigorously enforced. Many priests were banished from the kingdom, and those who refused to attend the service of the Church of England were heavily fined.

In despair of having their grievances removed by legal means, a few desperate men, led by Robert Catesby, formed a plot to blow up the House of Parliament with gunpowder. A cellar under the building was rented, and great quantities of powder were stored there, hidden under wood and coal. It was arranged that on the day of the opening of Parliament one man should slip into the cellar and light the pile. The conspirators hoped that king, nobles, and bishops would be destroyed in a moment. They had a long time to wait, since, on one ground or another, the opening of Parliament was put off for a year. At last, however, the time came; the day was set on which Parliament should convene. The hopes of the conspirators rose higher, for they believed that soon their enemies would be destroyed. But just before Parliament was to meet, one of the conspirators

wrote an unsigned letter to warn his brother-in-law to stay away from the meeting, for, he said, "this Parliament shall receive a terrible blow, and shall not see who hurt them." The letter was put into the hands of the king, and its meaning was unravelled.

Soldiers searched the cellar and seized Guy Fawkes, who was to touch off the powder. Other plotters took arms, but were pursued and killed or captured. The prisoners were executed. The Gunpowder Plot was known only to a few men; but, in the mind of the people, the Roman Catholics were to blame, and the laws against them became more rigorous than ever.

155. **The "divine right of kings."**—James I brought into England a new idea as to the power of a king. The English people held that a king should not act contrary to the laws of the country; but James believed that he was above the law and could do as he thought proper. His favourite expression was, "God makes the king; the king makes the law." On one occasion, when Parliament offered him some advice, he became very angry and told the members that, as it was blasphemy to dispute what God might do, so it was sedition in subjects to dispute the will of the king. This theory that a king derives his power directly from God is sometimes called "the divine right of kings."

In Scotland the Presbyterians and the powerful nobles had given James little power and little money. In England, however, he expected to have the same nearly absolute power as Henry VIII and Elizabeth had had. During the reign of these two able sovereigns, the power of the people had slumbered. Though the sovereigns had had their own way, Parliaments had always consented. When James attempted to have his way without the approval of Parliament, trouble began.

156. **Trouble with Parliament.**—James, like Edward II, had undeserving favourites on whom he lavished gifts and places of honour. He seemed to have no idea that a king should be careful how he spent the money that the taxation of his subjects had put into his hands. Immense

amounts were squandered, partly in revelry and in amusements that the Puritans considered disgraceful. The result was that the king was constantly in need of money, and frequently appealed to Parliament to help him.

From the very beginning of his reign James quarrelled with his Parliament. He attempted to interfere with the right of the Commons to decide a disputed election, but the House insisted on its rights. More than once during his reign, they refused to grant money unless their grievances were redressed, and sometimes the king would dissolve the House rather than grant their requests. At one time, seven years passed without a meeting of Parliament.

Under these circumstances, James was forced to obtain money as best he could. The old privileges of the Norman kings relating to "wardship" of minors had never been legally abolished. He agreed to surrender these privileges for £200,000 a year, but before the agreement was concluded Parliament was dissolved, and the king's urgent need of money led him to exact the feudal dues to the last penny. In addition, "monopolies" were revived, and "benevolences," which had been declared illegal, were extorted by means of the Star Chamber Court. Customs duties were levied without the consent of Parliament. Titles of honour were openly sold to all who chose to buy. The country groaned under these exactions, but the king continued, for the most part, to do as he pleased. The Parliament of 1621, however, compelled him to cease a number of his illegal acts, and went so far as to imprison and fine the lord chancellor, Francis Bacon, who had been convicted of accepting money from suitors who had cases to be tried in his court.

**157. James and Spain.**—James had married his daughter Elizabeth to Frederick, a Protestant prince who ruled over one of the German principalities. The English people were eager to give this prince aid against his Roman Catholic enemies, but James did not wish to offend the king of Spain, with whom it was his policy to make an alliance.

Just at this time Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been imprisoned in the Tower on a charge of conspiracy to dethrone

the king, made a proposal to James. He stated that he knew of the existence of a gold mine in Guiana from which



SIR WALTER RALEIGH

great riches might be obtained, and he offered, if he were freed from prison, to lead an expedition to take possession. He was allowed to go, but was under strict orders not to molest the Spaniards who were in the neighbourhood. James, however, told the Spanish ambassador that Raleigh was on the way to America, so that the Spaniards were ready to oppose him when he landed. He was forced into a fight in which his

son was killed; but the gold mine was not found. When he came home, in 1618, he was beheaded on the old charge of treason, although most Englishmen believed that he was executed to please the king of Spain. "God has made nobler heroes, but he never made a finer gentleman than Walter Raleigh."

James was eager to marry his son Charles to the Infanta of Spain; the dowry would be large, and he hoped that the alliance would make him powerful in Europe, and enable him to restore his son-in-law Frederick, who had been driven from his dominions. The real ruler of England at this time was George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, who had been raised from an obscure position to be the greatest peer in the realm. Buckingham was just as determined as the king to carry out the Spanish marriage and thus enable his master to govern the country independent of Parliament. The wrath of the nation was aroused when Charles—"Baby Charles," his father called him—set off to visit Spain, accompanied by the duke. But their reception at the Spanish court pleased neither the prince nor the

duke, and they returned to England eager to declare war against Spain. Negotiations were then begun for a marriage with one of the French princesses whom Charles had met on his journey. The people were so pleased that the Spanish marriage had been broken off and so rejoiced at the prospect of a war with Spain that they were eager to assist in every way. In the midst of the preparations for war, however, the king died.



THE DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM

**158. Planting colonies.**—Up to this time the English had been a stay-at-home people. From now onwards they began to plant colonies and to make settlements in every quarter of the globe. During the reign of James I there were two classes of men who turned their eyes to the wonderful country across the Atlantic. The first was a company of merchants who remembered the stories that had been told about the vast quantities of gold and silver that lay hidden in the unexplored lands. In 1609 these men founded a colony at Jamestown, Virginia, lately discovered by Sir Walter Raleigh, and named by him in honour of the virgin queen. This was the first permanent English colony on the North American continent. The second class settled much farther to the north. They were a band of Puritans who, to obtain freedom to worship as they pleased, had left their homes in England and had emigrated to Holland. They were not contented in a foreign land, and, after a long delay, they secured permission to cross the ocean and to settle in America. In 1620 these "Pilgrim Fathers" landed at Plymouth, and laid the foundations of what is known as New England.

Before 1600 commerce with India was in the hands of the Turkey Company which carried goods overland from the Indian Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea. The commerce with the East by sea was largely in the hands of the Dutch.

On the last day of the sixteenth century Elizabeth granted a charter to the "Company of London Merchants" for trade in the East Indies. The charter was renewed from time to time, and several voyages gave the company great profits. Finally, in 1612, the English obtained permission from the Great Mogul of India to open a warehouse at Surat on the west coast. This was the origin of Britain's Indian empire.

159. **Ireland.**—At the accession of James I, Ireland was settling down to some sort of order. The power of the chieftains was largely gone, and justice was everywhere administered in the name of the king. The fear that they were to be deprived of their lands was the chief cause of a plot against James led by two Irish earls, Tyrone and Tyrconnel. The earls were convicted of treason, and fled from the country; a vast extent of land in the north of Ireland was declared to be confiscated to the crown, and the land was divided up among English and Scottish Protestants. The native Irish had either to seek other homes or to remain as tenants where they had formerly been owners. The new settlers soon made Ulster a rich and prosperous district, but the hatred of the Irish for England was very much increased.

### SUMMARY

When James came to the throne, Roman Catholics and Puritans each hoped for his favour, but his support was given to the Church of England. Puritan clergymen appealed for freedom in church ceremonies, but the only good result of the Hampton Court conference was a new translation of the Bible. The discovery of the "Gunpowder Plot" prevented the destruction of the king and of both Houses of Parliament. James attempted to govern as far as he could without a Parliament, and tried to arrange a marriage for his son with the Infanta of Spain. Raleigh was sacrificed to Spanish hatred. Settlements were founded in America and in India. James's favourite idea was the "divine right of kings," but his weakness and folly lessened the personal devotion that the nation had shown to the Tudors.

### 2. CHARLES I. 1625-1649

160. **Charles I and the "divine right."**—Charles was twenty-five years of age when he came to the throne. In



person and manner he was a marked contrast to his father, but he believed in the "divine right of kings," and in his own power and dignity even more firmly than did James. He was convinced that, if the people did not recognize his "divine right" to rule as he wished, it was simply because they were wilful and obstinate; it was his duty to govern and theirs to obey. Difficulty arose at the very beginning of his reign in connection with his marriage to Henrietta Maria of France. When the marriage was arranged, Charles had promised to allow his wife the utmost freedom in the exercise of her religion, and to permit her to bring to Eng-



CHARLES I

land her own priests and attendants. He also promised that the laws against the English Roman Catholics should be relaxed. Not only had Charles no power to carry out these promises, but he and his father had assured Parliament that he would not enter into any such agreement. When Parliament met, it insisted on enforcing the laws against the Roman Catholics, and Charles was compelled to yield. This incident irritated the English Protestants, and the failure of the king to keep his promise aroused the anger of France.

**161. The first Parliament, 1626.**—Charles quickly called his first Parliament and asked for money to carry on the war against Spain. The House was composed largely of wealthy gentlemen and able lawyers, for the most part Puritans. They knew well the history of their country, and were resolved to maintain the power of Parliament. They claimed that Parliament had the sole right to tax the people, and

thus raise money for the government. If the king could manage to raise money by his own methods, he could get along without a Parliament and govern as he pleased. Parliament, moreover, could not meet unless the king summoned it. Charles had kept his worthless friend, Buckingham, as his chancellor, or chief minister. Buckingham was blamed by the Commons for all the misdeeds of the government, and they refused to grant money unless it should be spent by men in whom they had confidence. It had been the custom of the Parliament to grant a new king, for life, a customs duty called "tonnage and poundage," that is a tax per ton and per pound on imported merchandise. But as James had increased this duty without asking its consent, Parliament refused to grant it for more than one year at a time.

Under the advice of Buckingham, the king dismissed the Parliament, and, going ahead with the war, sent a fleet and army to attack Cadiz. The attack failed, however, and the English forces then tried to find the Spanish treasure fleet; but the fleet escaped them and reached Spain in safety.

The expedition, thinned by disease, returned without accomplishing anything.



JOHN PYM

**162. The second Parliament, 1626.**—Money was needed, and therefore Charles had to summon Parliament again. Under the leadership of resolute men like Sir John Eliot and John Pym, the Commons began an inquiry into the conduct of the war. They held Buckingham responsible for the failure, and resolved to impeach him before the House of

Lords. Charles refused to allow any inquiry by Parliament into the conduct of his minister, and, as the Commons persisted, he dissolved the House. No money had been granted.

**163. The third Parliament, 1628-29.**—As Charles could get no funds by lawful means, he decided to get them

in any way that he could; and he tried to collect what was really almost the same as benevolences, although the amount demanded was in some proportion to each man's income. Some of those who refused to pay these "forced loans" were imprisoned; others had soldiers billeted in their houses, and as offences committed by these soldiers were tried by martial law, the citizens had very little redress; poorer men who resented the tax were forced to serve in the army.

In the meantime, a war had broken out between France and England. An expedition, led by the Duke of Buckingham, to assist the French Protestants who were besieged in Rochelle, ended in a complete failure. Both France and Spain were now united against England, and Charles could not procure enough money to resist their attacks; there was nothing to do but to call another Parliament. The king was angry and scornful; Parliament was indignant at his treatment of his subjects, and alarmed at what might be the result if he were allowed to go on in his course. In the opinion of the Commons, voting money for war was not the most important matter on hand; affairs at home must first be attended to. They drew up and presented to the king the famous "Petition of Right." The Petition of Right asked that the king should keep the laws of the land; and the main points named were that no man should be compelled to make any loan to the king against his will, or to pay any tax not agreed to by Parliament; that soldiers and sailors should not be quartered upon the people without their consent; that no one should be tried by martial law in time of peace; and that no one should be put in prison without cause shown. Charles held out for a long time. When he did decide to agree to the petition, the members of Parliament were so delighted that they straightway voted the supplies that the king had asked. Then they began to discuss the matters that had been mentioned in the petition, and to plan how to get rid of Buckingham, upon whom they laid all the responsibility for the king's actions. But Charles, rather than endanger his favourite, interfered and closed the session. A

short time afterwards, however, just as the duke was about to set out on another expedition against France, he was assassinated. The people rejoiced at the death of the man they hated, but his death caused no change in the policy of the king. The expedition, however, which sailed under a new commander, proved a complete failure.

The next year this Parliament met again. There was great excitement throughout the country, for, in spite of the Petition of Right, the king still continued to collect taxes not voted by Parliament. Another trouble had arisen, for William Laud, who at this time was Bishop of London, had introduced into the church service many ceremonies



COSTUMES, TIME OF CHARLES I

that were so much like those of the Roman Catholics that Parliament feared a return to the ancient doctrine. The Speaker knew that a protest was coming, and he attempted to adjourn the House, saying that he did so by the king's orders. But even in defiance of the king, the House was resolved that the protest should be heard; and so, while two members held the Speaker down in his chair and another locked the outer door, a declaration was read that whoever should bring in any change in the creed and practices of the church and whoever should advise or should pay voluntarily any tax not voted by Parliament, was an enemy to his country.

During the reading of the protest, the king had sent for one of the officers, but the man was not allowed to leave the room. The king sent a message, but the House refused to admit the messenger. Then the king "grew into much rage and passion" and sent the royal guard to break in the door; but now that the protest had been read and every member of the House had heard it, the doors were thrown open and Parliament quietly adjourned.

Immediately after the adjournment, the king arrested the members who had taken part in the proceedings attending the passage of the resolutions. Some of these made their peace with the king and were pardoned. Sir John Eliot was locked up in the Tower and kept there three years, until he died; two others were imprisoned for eleven years.

**164. Eleven years without a Parliament, 1629-40.**—Charles now devoted his whole attention to two things which he thought concerned most his dignity as an absolute sovereign: the raising of money without a Parliament, and the establishment of the doctrines and customs of the English church, including the use of the prayer book, throughout his dominions. Peace was concluded with France and Spain. He and his ministers used many methods for filling the royal treasury. One way was by granting "monopolies," an old abuse of the preceding century; from this one source the king obtained £200,000. The Star Chamber was made an instrument of the king's tyranny, and, for slight offences, people were compelled by it to pay enormous fines. One of the chief supporters of the king was Earl Strafford, who, as Sir Thomas Wentworth, had formerly been one of the most active leaders on the side of Parliament.



EARL STRAFFORD

He was sent to Ireland as lord deputy, and his vigorous measures there soon gave him absolute control of the country. The aim of his policy, which he called "Thorough," was to make the king supreme.

It would take too long to describe all the illegal devices for raising money, such as pulling down houses built without royal license and doubling the duty on imports, but the tax known as "ship-money" was of special importance. In early times ships had been furnished by the seaport towns to be used by the king in protecting their trade against pirates. About 1634 the pirates of Algiers began to attack English shipping, and the Dutch naval power was becoming dangerously strong; a larger navy was necessary. Charles first called on the seaports to furnish and equip a certain number of ships, or, if they preferred, to make a money payment, "ship-money," instead. But soon Charles, on the ground that the whole country was interested in protecting commerce, tried to make all the counties pay the tax.

At length a Buckinghamshire squire, John Hampden, refused to pay his share of ship-money, on the ground that it



ARCHBISHOP LAUD

was a tax not voted by Parliament. The amount was only twenty shillings, but the principle at stake was of great importance. The case was tried before twelve judges, and, though Hampden lost his case, five of the judges were in his favour. Charles continued the tax, but the arguments against it went through the country and made the people less disposed to submit.

Meanwhile, Laud, now Archbishop of Canterbury, was busy in making the Puritan churches use the prayer book and conduct service according to the Act of Uniformity. In 1604 the clergy of the established church had adopted a body

of canons relating to the doctrine of the church and the conduct of public worship. Laud now undertook to enforce these rules. The Court of High Commission was made the instrument of his oppression. The Puritans were the greatest sufferers. Hundreds of their ministers were deprived of their livings. Some, who openly criticised the policy of the king, were sentenced to pay a heavy fine, to be imprisoned for life, and to lose their ears. So bitter was the persecution that thousands of them emigrated to America.

**165. Trouble in Scotland.**—Charles had put the country into a turmoil, but he had gained no wisdom from his troubles. Instead of trying to make matters better in England, he turned his attention to Scotland. He chose this time, of all times, to try to compel the Scottish Presbyterians to use the prayer book of the Church of England. The Dean of Edinburgh did his best to obey the king's orders, but in a moment the church was full of angry shouts. When he tried again, an old woman named Janet Geddes threw at his head the little stool on which she had been sitting, and cried, "Do you mean to say mass at my ear?" Then came rebellion, and the king had no money to pay soldiers. He was forced to summon another Parliament. But when Parliament met in April, 1640, the Commons refused to give the king any help until their grievances were redressed. After a session of three weeks, the king angrily dissolved Parliament. But the Scots pressed on, and he found it impossible to resist them with such troops as he could raise. In November of the same year, therefore, he was again compelled to call Parliament. It is known as the "Long Parliament," as it was not dissolved for twenty years.

**166. The Long Parliament.**—Much as the people had suffered, they had not yet come to the point where they would accuse their king directly of unfaithfulness to the kingdom intrusted to him. Instead of this, Parliament accused his advisers, Laud and Strafford, of treason, and both were sent to the Tower. Charles wrote a friendly letter to Strafford and said, "Upon the word of a king, you shall not suffer in life, honour or fortune. This is but justice." Within three

weeks Strafford had a chance to learn the value of the word of the king, for Charles assented to his death, though most unwillingly, and he was beheaded. Laud was kept in prison until his execution four years later.

The general discontent of the kingdom and the danger from the Scottish army, forced the king to give assent to sweeping measures of reform that were introduced into Parliament. The Star Chamber Court was abolished and ship-money was declared illegal. It was also provided that Parliament must meet at least once in three years, whether the king called it or not, and that the present Parliament could not be dissolved by the king without its consent.

**167. The "Grand Remonstrance," 1641.**—Charles had unwillingly consented to all the measures of Parliament, but secretly he was trying to procure help in Scotland and Ireland in his struggle for the mastery. In order to make friends with the Scots, he went to Edinburgh in 1641, agreed to all the demands of the Scottish Parliament, and tried to persuade them to send him an army.



JOHN HAMPDEN

In the meantime, there was trouble in Ireland. The native Irish, who had been dispossessed of their land by James I, were almost in a state of rebellion. The rule of Strafford had made the Irish more discontented than ever. As soon as his strong hand was removed, a rebellion took place, and thousands of English were massacred in a few days. It was necessary to send an army to quell the revolt; but to give the king men and money was to endanger the liberties of England, for he would then be strong enough to compel the submission of those members of Parliament who were opposed to him.

There was much discussion. Some stood firmly by the king. Some thought that it was the wisest plan, since the king had yielded several points, to bear with him, and hope that nothing worse would come to pass. Some—and these



were in the majority—felt that they had endured as long as they could, and that they could put no confidence in anything that he might promise. They drew up a document called the "Grand Remonstrance," which named, one after another, the acts of Charles that they considered were against the laws of the land.

Just at this point the king might have recovered his power. There was a party in Parliament that favoured him, while his opponents were divided into religious factions; his agreement to the demands of the Scottish Parliament had made him friends, and his assent to the measures of the Commons had won him support in London. He now took a step which destroyed his influence. The queen urged him to seize five members of Parliament who had been leaders in passing the Remonstrance. Her only idea of a king was that he should be absolute, as the king of France was. She advised him to go and "pull those rogues out by the ears."

The king went to the House with several hundred armed men. He left them at the door, advanced to the Speaker's desk, and inquired for Pym, Hampden, and three other members, whom he accused of treasonable correspondence with the Scots. The Speaker replied, "Sir, I have neither eyes to see, nor ears to hear, except as the House shall direct me." The five members, warned of their danger, had been safely concealed in the city, and the king was obliged to retire without them. He had forcibly and unlawfully invaded the rights of the House and had failed. The citizens were roused; an armed force was raised, and the five members were escorted back to Westminster.

**168. The Civil War breaks out.**—Affairs had now come to a point where neither party would yield any further, and there was nothing to do but to fight. Setting up his standard at Nottingham in 1642, the king called upon all loyal subjects to join him. Every man in the kingdom must stand on one side or the other. About one third of the Commons and more than one half of the Lords supported the king, while the remainder of the Lords and Commons, a large number of country gentlemen of high social

position, and the bulk of the Puritans supported the Parliament. "It is easier to draw a geographical line between



A CAVALIER



A ROUNDHEAD

parties, though both sides had representatives everywhere. For the most part, London, the southern and the south-eastern shires were in favour of Parliament; the north, Wales, and the south-western shires inclined towards the king." The royalists, because of their excellent horsemanship, were known as "Cavaliers," and the supporters of Parliament were nicknamed "Round-

heads," from the close-cropped hair worn by the Puritans.

**169. Progress of the war.**—It was in 1642 that the first fighting took place; the first real battle was at Edgehill in 1643. Neither army had had much training, but most of the king's men were accustomed to riding, and therefore the royal cavalry was far superior to the undrilled Puritan foot soldiers. The contest resulted in a drawn battle. Indeed, for some little time the king was successful, and had it not been for one strong, clear-headed man among the Puritans, Oliver Cromwell, the ending of the war might have been quite different.

Cromwell was a native of Huntingdonshire, a gentleman of large estate and good social position. He sat in Parliament for the first time in 1628, and from the first took a leading part in the discussions of the House. In religion, he belonged to the Independents, who wished to make each congregation a self-governing church, independent of all others. At the outbreak of the war, he raised a troop of horse, which did good service at Edgehill. After the battle, he said to Hampden, "We can never win with such men as you have; old tapsters and servants, low-born and mean-spirited fellows can never win against gentlemen who have honour, courage, and resolution." He saw at once

that it was a mistake to pay low wages and to take every one who wished to become a soldier; and he set to work to raise a regiment among the Puritans that should be of quite different material from the rest of the parliamentary army. He gave his men high wages, but he would admit to his ranks only those who were of good character, some education, and strong religious convictions.

Before the war fairly broke out, Charles had asked Scotland to aid him, but that country had refused. Parliament now asked the Scots to unite with the English army against the king; and the Scots agreed on condition that the Presbyterian form of worship should be adopted in England. This did not please Cromwell, but finally, in 1643, a treaty was drawn up called the "Solemn League and Covenant," and an alliance was formed.



BATTLES OF THE CIVIL WAR

Cromwell and the Scots now met the royalist army under Prince Rupert, the nephew of the king, at Marston Moor in 1644. Cromwell's "Ironsides" charged on Rupert's cavalry; they crumbled them to pieces and scattered them, as Cromwell said, "like a little dust." But Cromwell did not pursue. Wheeling about, he promptly charged the royalist infantry, with a like result. The north of England was conquered. Elsewhere Charles was winning victories.

Cromwell, as a member of Parliament, now attacked the weak spot in the parliamentary army. He felt that the army was badly organized and that some of the commanders were really not anxious to destroy utterly the power of the king. A "Self-denying Ordinance" was introduced in 1645, which provided that members of Parliament should resign their offices in the army; the effect of this ordinance was to remove from their commands several of the chief leaders of the parliamentary army. Sir Thomas Fairfax was made general, and Cromwell, in spite of the ordinance, became lieutenant-general. Hampden had been killed a short time before in an obscure skirmish at Chalgrove Field. The organization of the army on a "New Model" was carried out under the direction of Cromwell.

In 1645, six months after its re-organization, the New Model Army faced the forces of the king at Naseby. Rupert commanded the right wing of the royalists, Cromwell the right wing of the parliamentarians. Both were victorious, but Cromwell, returning from the charge, attacked Rupert's horse in flank and routed them. The king was hopelessly defeated. The small armies that remained to him in different parts of the country were soon scattered, and the war was over.

And now came a time of tedious attempts to settle terms of peace. The king might still have made an honourable arrangement with the Parliament and saved his life and his throne, but he continued plotting, hoping that the rival parties in Parliament would destroy each other, or that the Scots would come to his assistance. At last he surrendered himself to the Scottish army, who gave him up to the English Parliament. The army then took charge of him, and offered to come to such terms with him as would have left him much of his royal power. He would not agree to these terms and escaped to the Isle of Wight, where he met commissioners from Scotland and induced them to renew the war. But the Scottish army was badly defeated by Cromwell at Preston in 1648. Charles was already in the power of the army, and was now safely confined in Hurst Castle, where no help could reach him.

The Presbyterian party in the Commons still desired to make peace with the king. But the army, entirely under the control of the Independents, had lost all patience with him, and determined to have a Parliament that would obey its will. One day Colonel Pride appeared in the House of Commons with a body of troopers sent by the Independents, and expelled more than a hundred of the members who were still anxious to come to an agreement with the king. The remaining members, about sixty in number, were prepared to carry out the will of the army.

**170. The execution of Charles.**—In 1649 this remnant of the Commons appointed a special commission to try the king for “high treason and other high crimes.” Before this, kings had been deposed, or forced to flee to save their lives, or had even been murdered, but to call a reigning sovereign into court and order him to defend himself was something entirely new. The king answered simply that he had nothing to say, since the court before which he was to be tried had no lawful authority. He was condemned, and ten days later he was executed. He met his death with calm dignity, and, doubtless with sincerity, maintained the justice of his cause.

### SUMMARY

From the beginning of his reign, Charles was in conflict with his Parliament, which refused to grant supplies unless he would govern as it desired. In his endeavour to rule without a Parliament, he collected “ship-money” and other illegal taxes, revived “monopolies” and enforced his will by means of the Star Chamber. He signed the “Petition of Right,” but did not abide by its terms. For eleven years he ruled without a Parliament, Laud and Strafford being his chief ministers. An attempt to force the prayer book upon the Scots set Scotland in a ferment, and to obtain funds to suppress the rebellion the “Long Parliament” was summoned. Revolt against injustice and oppression produced uprisings and massacres in Ireland. The “Grand Remonstrance” was drawn up. Charles attempted to arrest members of Parliament for their free speech in the House. Civil war followed. Under Cromwell’s leadership the Roundheads were successful. Charles surrendered to the Scots, and was given by them into the hands of Parliament. Cromwell and his Independents captured the king. “Pride’s Purge” expelled the Presbyterians from the House, and the Independents who remained appointed a commission to try the king. He was condemned and executed.

## 3. THE COMMONWEALTH. 1649-1660

171. **The establishment of the Commonwealth.**—After the death of the king, the small number of members who remained in Parliament abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords, and declared England a Commonwealth. In this action they were supported by the army, but not by the majority of the people. Forty-one men were selected



JOHN MILTON

by the House as a Council of State, to carry on the government. John Bradshaw was chosen president, and the Latin secretary was John Milton, the Puritan poet, the author of "Paradise Lost."

Now arose strife among many different parties, each seeking to control public affairs. There were Presbyterians and Independents, and there were "Levellers," who wished to have no titles and no differences of

rank or political power. There were many also who had been royalists and had stood by the king from the beginning, and there were others who had not approved of Charles, but now wished his son to be king. The only body strong enough to act was the army; so, for the next eleven years, the army and its leader were in practical control.

172. **Prince Charles seeks the throne.**—Over in Holland was King Charles's oldest son, who was also named Charles. He was a young man of nineteen, and was the hope of the royalists. Little could be done for him in England, since Cromwell and the invincible army were there, but in Scotland and Ireland there was a better chance, and the royalists of both countries had proclaimed him as their king.

The first uprising took place in Ireland, and Cromwell

was at once sent to reduce the country. In nine months his work was done. Wherever either royalism or love for the Roman Catholic church had found a stronghold, whether among English or Irish, there was devastation and remorseless massacre of those who resisted his power. The garrisons of Drogheda and Wexford were put to the sword. Cromwell drove many of the native land-holders in Ireland to the north-west, and gave their land to English settlers.

Charles had now no chance in Ireland. His only hope was in Scotland, and there he went in 1650. He agreed to become a Presbyterian, and to set up that religion in England and Ireland as well. Cromwell then invaded Scotland, and, at Dunbar, the army of the royalists was entirely defeated, and soon all southern Scotland was in Cromwell's power. Accompanied by Charles, the Scots now crossed the border into England, in the expectation that the English royalists would crowd their ranks. They were much disappointed, for few came to join them. Then followed, in 1651, the battle of Worcester, in which nearly all the Scottish army was cut down. Cromwell called this battle his "crowning mercy." He never had occasion to draw his sword again.

After the battle of Worcester, Charles rode away alone, and after many narrow escapes reached France. Long after, a tree called the "royal oak" was pointed out where the prince had concealed himself among the branches while his pursuers searched the woods for him in vain.

**173. The war with Holland and Spain.**—During the civil war in England, the Dutch had devoted themselves steadily to trade, and their merchant vessels were larger and swifter than those of England. Most of the goods imported into England at this time were brought in Dutch vessels. It was determined to stop this, and, in 1651, a Navigation Act was passed which ordered that all goods landed in the ports of England must be brought in English ships, or in the ships of the country from which the goods came. The English also demanded that all ships sailing the Channel should salute the English flag. This, together with the irritation caused by the Navigation Act, led to a war with the Dutch.

Robert Blake, a distinguished soldier of the parliamentary

army, was made "general of the sea," and took command of the fleet. Several naval battles were fought with unequal success. In the third engagement, with forty ships Blake had to face Van Tromp, the Dutch admiral, with more than eighty vessels, and was defeated. The Dutch then sailed the Channel with brooms at the masthead to signify that they had swept the English from the seas. But a little later, when the two fleets met on more equal terms near Portland, the English won a signal victory. The Dutch were glad to make peace with England.

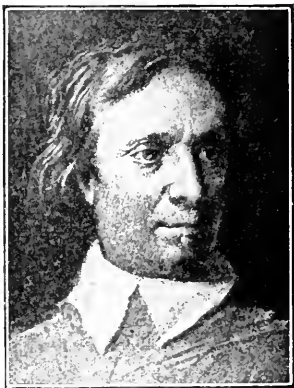
Blake then destroyed the Turkish pirates in the Mediterranean and set free many Englishmen who had been held as slaves. As in Elizabeth's time, English seamen again challenged the power of Spain at sea. Blake's most daring exploit was in capturing, with the loss of a single ship, a Spanish treasure-fleet in the strongly fortified harbour of Santa Cruz in the Canary Islands. He died at sea in 1657, just as he was entering Plymouth harbour, and was buried with the highest honours in Westminster Abbey. As a result of the war with Spain, Jamaica and the Flemish town of Dunkirk fell into the hands of the English.

**174. Cromwell dissolves Parliament, 1653.**—Four years had passed since the execution of Charles I, and still the remnant of the Long Parliament was making laws for the nation. Cromwell believed that Parliament should represent the country more generally, but those who were already members wished to be free to retain their seats as long as they chose, and when vacancies did occur, to fill them only with such men as they were willing to receive. Word was brought to Cromwell that a law to this effect was to be passed, and he went to the House with a file of musketeers. He sat and listened awhile, then made a fiery speech, ending by saying, "Call them in; call them in. We have had enough of this. I will put an end to your prating." The soldiers marched in and cleared the House. Cromwell locked the door, and put the key in his pocket. Few men felt any sorrow for the fate of the Long Parliament. Cromwell himself said, "We did not hear a dog bark at their going."



**175. Cromwell as Lord Protector.**—Cromwell and his officers now selected a Parliament themselves. Only men who were known to be religious and honourable were allowed to sit in it. As the Parliament consisted of only one hundred men, it was called the Little Parliament; but the royalists nicknamed it Barebone's Parliament, from the curious name of a London leather merchant, Praise-God Bārbōn, who was a member. After much discussion without result, most of the members withdrew. The officers of the army then met and devised a scheme of government. Cromwell was to be Lord Protector and was to be aided by a permanent Council of twenty-one men and a Parliament to be called every three years. Cromwell accepted the office and took up his residence at once in the palace of the late king.

After this Cromwell made one or two attempts to rule by Parliament, and even to revive the House of Lords, but his efforts ended in failure. In fact he was as ready to quarrel with Parliaments as Charles I had been. He really ruled by the army, and, in 1655, divided the country into ten military districts, over each of which he placed a major-general, who was to keep order and enforce the law; but, nearly two years later, in deference to the wishes of his second Parliament, he withdrew them, and allowed things to go on in the usual way. He would not tolerate disorder, and some who stirred up rebellion against him soon found their way to the scaffold. Never, however, had the laws been more strictly or justly administered. On the very day that the Commonwealth concluded an alliance with Portugal, the brother of the Portuguese ambassador was hanged in London for murder. Under his rule, also, the Jews, who had been banished by Edward I, were allowed to return to England.



OLIVER CROMWELL

Cromwell made the name of England respected abroad. England was again a great power, and acted as the protector of the weak and the oppressed throughout Europe. He himself said in his speech to his first Parliament, "I dare say there is not a nation in Europe but is willing to ask a good understanding with you."

**176. Dissatisfaction with Puritan rule.**—It was a good government, but it was arbitrary, and the people of England were not satisfied to have power so absolute in the hands of any one man. Then, too, there were very strict laws forbidding many things that a great part of the nation looked upon as harmless. The Puritans called it wicked to play chess, to dance around a May-pole, to go fox-hunting, or to eat mince-pie at Christmas. As for the theatres, they had all been closed in 1642; for the Puritans made no difference between the noble plays of Shakespeare and the vulgar ones in which King James delighted, so all were condemned together.

**177. The close of the Protectorate.**—It was only by unremitting personal effort that a government such as that of Cromwell could be carried on, and in time his strength began to fail. At last it was evident that the Protector's hour had come. When hardly conscious he was asked to name his successor, and is thought to have whispered "Richard." He died on September 3rd, 1658, the anniversary of the battles of Dunbar and Worcester, a day which he had always considered specially fortunate. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, and Richard Cromwell became Protector in his father's stead.

It would have taken a firm hand to rule in Cromwell's place. Richard was a Puritan, but he had no sympathy with the extreme members of his party, and he was not strong enough to suppress them as his father had done. He was kindly and good-hearted, but he could not govern a nation. There was only one power in the land, and that was the army. It was made up in great degree of Independents, and they wished matters to remain as they were; but the Presbyterians and the Cavaliers thought that anything was better than to let the army have control.

At last the officers of the army decided to call back the remnant of the Long Parliament. Richard quietly withdrew from power. The army soon ceased to be united, and when General Monk came with his men from Scotland, every one looked to him to take charge of affairs. He was a quiet, silent man, but when he had once made up his mind, he did not change. The Common Council of London told him that the people would pay no more taxes that were decreed by a limited Parliament like the one then in session. Still Monk hesitated. At last he came to a decision, and he wrote a bold, firm letter to that body, bidding them issue calls for a "free" Parliament, that is, for a Parliament elected by the nation, and not by the Puritans alone. This assembly invited Charles to return as king of England.

### SUMMARY

The period began with a small House of Commons making laws for the nation, and with the chief power in the hands of Cromwell, supported by the army. Prince Charles, seeking first the aid of Ireland and then that of Scotland, attempted in vain to recover his father's throne. Finally, Cromwell dissolved Parliament by force, and the land was ruled by a Council that soon made him Lord Protector. His methods of ruling were often arbitrary, but he did what he really believed was for the good of the land. He restored the naval glory of England. His rule was good, and England prospered; but the reaction against Puritan narrowness set in, and not long after Cromwell's death, his son and successor was forced to resign the position of Protector, and calls were issued for a "free" Parliament.

#### 4. CHARLES II. 1660-1685

**178. The Restoration.**—The Restoration is the name usually given to that period when the third Stuart king began to reign, although the royalists claimed that Charles had been reigning for eleven years, but had been kept out of his kingdom by that "base mechanic fellow," Cromwell. But the Restoration meant more than the coming back of the king. It meant the coming back of the Parliament, for we must remember that the people had

not been fairly represented in Cromwell's time. It meant also the coming back of the old church, with its bishops and prayer book, and the coming back of the old amusements and social life. The theatres were again opened; the village holidays were again celebrated with the old bear-baiting, horse racing, cock-fighting, dancing and buffoonery.



CHARLES II

**179. Treatment of the regicides.**—The first business of the new Parliament was to deal with those who had been rebels against the crown. An Act was passed granting a general pardon, but from this those who had been concerned in the

execution of Charles I were exempted. Thirteen of these "regicides" were executed, nineteen imprisoned for life, while nineteen fled to the continent. The dead body of Cromwell was taken from the grave and hanged. Even the body of the heroic Blake was taken from its tomb in Westminster Abbey. The king held that all who fought on the side of Cromwell were guilty of high treason, and deserved death, and he urged the Parliament to these acts of vengeance. To protect the lives of future sovereigns, Parliament compelled all officials to take a solemn oath declaring their belief that it was not lawful for a subject, under any circumstances, to take up arms against a king.

In the general rejoicing over the restoration of the monarchy, Parliament was ready to grant almost anything to the king. It voted him at the beginning of his reign for life the sum of £1,200,000 annually. This revenue made Charles really independent of Parliament. He had far more ready money than any previous sovereign.

**180. Charles's character.**—It is a great pity that Charles was not worthy of all the adoration showered upon him by the people, but he cared for nothing except his own amuse-

ment. If he had wished for innocent enjoyments, that would have been a different matter, but he was shameless and immoral in his pleasures. He surrounded himself with the most profligate companions. Any one looking on would have thought that the whole court gloried in being as wicked as possible.

At first the nation sympathized with the king's merriment. The years had been so grave and gloomy that it was certainly a relief to have a king who was good-humoured and witty; but people soon began to realize that more than wit and agreeable manners are needed in the man who stands at the head of a nation; and more than one remembered that Cromwell and his Parliament, even if they had been strict and serious, had not given their time to selfish pleasures, and had conscientiously tried to do what they believed was for the good of the country.

**181. Persecution of the dissenters.**—The first Parliament elected in Charles's reign set to work at once to restore the Anglican church and to drive out the Puritans and other dissenters. An Act of Uniformity was passed in 1662 requiring all clergymen to use the prayer book; about two thousand refused, and were compelled to give up their churches. All those who refused to attend the service of the English church were arrested, fined, and imprisoned; as many as ten thousand were in prison at one time. An attempt was made in 1665 to break up the dissenting congregations by the "Five-Mile Act," which forbade their clergy to preach or teach within five miles of any town or city.

John Bunyan of Bedfordshire was one of the dissenting preachers imprisoned under these laws. Driven by a feeling of sin in his youth, he was converted to the Puritan faith, and became a travelling preacher. For refusing to abstain from preaching, he was put in Bedford jail, where he remained twelve years. While there he wrote several books, the most remarkable of which is "The Pilgrim's Progress," a famous allegory of a pilgrimage from this world to the next.

In Scotland, the Presbyterians were called Covenanters, because they had signed a "Solemn League and Covenant"

to maintain their religion. The Scottish Parliament established the same form of worship as was used in England, but the Presbyterians refused to attend the church services, just as the dissenters did in England. And now began a cruel religious persecution in Scotland. The Covenanters held meetings in private houses or in fields. These meetings were forbidden and were broken up by armed soldiers. In spite of persecution, the Covenanters still met in caves and other secret places, and resisted, even by force of arms, the attempt to make them abandon their religion.

One important result of these religious persecutions was the foundation of the colony of Pennsylvania. The government owed William Penn, leader of a body of dissenters known as the Society of Friends, or Quakers, a large sum of money, and Penn asked for a grant of a tract of land in America in payment of the debt. Charles granted the request very willingly, and from that time the Quakers had a refuge in the New World when life in England became unbearable.

**182. The Great Plague and the Great Fire.**—In 1665 there came a hot, dry spring, and then the Great Plague, which swept over England as the Black Death had done three hundred years before. Whenever any one was taken with it, the words, "Lord, have mercy upon us," were written with red chalk on his door. Every one who could leave hurried to the country. The stores were closed. The streets were silent as the tomb, except for the passing of the dead-cart and the awful cry, "Bring out your dead, bring out your dead!" After six months had passed, the pestilence began to die out, and a little later people ventured to return from the country. Great fires had been kept burning in the streets to purify the air, but the houses were old and dirty, and it seemed as if nothing but their destruction would conquer the disease.

The next year came the Great Fire, "a most horrid, malicious, bloody flame," says Mr. Pepys in his journal. For three days it swept the city of London: houses, stores, and churches were in ashes, and nearly two thirds of the city was destroyed. Not many lives were lost, but the poor people suffered terribly, for almost everything that they possessed was swept away. Charles and his brother James were both

very kind to the sufferers, and did all that they could to help them. The famous architect, Sir Christopher Wren, had a plan for rebuilding the city so that there would be no more narrow, winding streets, but the owners of property would not agree to any great changes, and the city was rebuilt on almost the same foundations, though much brick and stone was used instead of wood. Some good at least was done by the fire in destroying so many of the plague-infested houses.

**183. The war with Holland.**—While London was suffering from these disasters, the English navy was engaged in a

stubborn contest with the Dutch fleet. The war was caused by the re-enactment of the Navigation Act, and by the rivalry of the two nations in the Indian trade. The war went on in India, along the coast of Africa, and in America, where an English fleet seized the Dutch colony of New



COSTUMES, TIME OF CHARLES II

Amsterdam, thereupon renamed New York, in honour of the Duke of York, the king's brother. A series of bloody battles took place off the eastern coast of England. The enormous amount of £2,500,000 had been voted by Parliament to carry on the war. But this money, which should have been spent in keeping the navy in repair and in supplying men and guns, was squandered by the king on his friends and favourites. The result was that in 1667 the Dutch sailed up the Thames and blockaded

London for several days, and the English fleet was not prepared to meet them. The people were stung by this national disgrace, and this, together with the growing mistrust of France, compelled the king to agree, in 1667, to a peace. In the following year England entered into a Triple Alliance with Holland and Sweden against the French king.

**184. The Cabal ministry.** Partly by reason of the unsuccessful issue of the Dutch war, Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, who had been the king's first minister ever since the Restoration, was forced to resign his office and flee the country. Charles himself was glad to be relieved of an adviser whose nature was too serious to suit his own frivolous disposition, and he felt that now he would be more free of the control of Parliament. The king's nominal advisers had hitherto been the Privy Council. This was too unwieldy a body to consult, and therefore the king chose from their numbers a select group of members, who thus became a kind of inner Council. By mere chance the first letters of the names of those five whom Charles now selected to be his advisers formed the word CABAL, a word which meant a body of secret advisers; but so distrusted were these men that the "cabal" has ever since been used as a term of reproach.

**185. Charles and Louis.**—Although Charles had entered into the Triple Alliance, he was determined to break his promise. He was eager for money, and this he could not get without calling a Parliament and presenting good reason to show that money was needed. He was already beginning to lean towards the Roman Catholic religion and to favour the Roman Catholics of England. In 1670, unknown to the Protestant members of the Cabal, a secret treaty was made at Dover with Louis XIV, king of France, by which Charles, in spite of his alliance with the Dutch, bound himself to assist Louis to conquer that nation; he also agreed to join the Roman Catholic church openly and to restore that religion in England. In return he was to receive a large yearly pension from Louis and the aid of six thousand French soldiers to be used against the English, should they object to carrying out the terms of the treaty.



Charles actually declared war against the Dutch, but as he did not dare to appeal to Parliament for money to carry on the war, he seized from the national treasury what would be equal to nine or ten million dollars to-day, and spent it partly on the war and partly on his own pleasure. This money had been collected to repay wealthy citizens of London who had lent large sums to the government, and when they were not paid, many merchants and bankers were ruined. The alliance with France was very unpopular, and, moreover, it was generally believed that Charles was leaning towards Roman Catholicism. The country was indignant, and, much against his will, the king was compelled again to make peace with the Dutch.

**186. Trouble over religion.**—Charles had already attempted to carry out part of his agreement with Louis by proclaiming the Declaration of Indulgence, by which all laws interfering with any peaceable form of public worship were suspended. But Parliament began now to suspect the treacherous designs of the king, and declared that the Declaration was illegal, and that the laws could not be suspended except by Act of Parliament. When Charles saw that further resistance would be useless, he yielded. But Parliament went even further and passed, in 1673, the Test Act. This Act required every man appointed to an office in the army, navy, or the government, to be a member of the Church of England and to declare that he did not believe that the bread and wine of the sacrament became the actual body and blood of Christ when blessed by the priest. If he so declared, it was considered proof that he was not a Roman Catholic. The Duke of York, the brother of the king, immediately resigned his command in the navy, and his example was followed by hundreds of others who refused to sacrifice their religion.

The attempts of the king to lessen the severity of the laws against the Roman Catholics caused, in 1678, an outbreak of religious fanaticism. An infamous or half-insane wretch, called Titus Oates, declared that there had been a gigantic plot formed by the Roman Catholics to burn

London and to murder the king. This was wholly false, but many people were put to death as a result.

**187. The succession to the throne.**—The religious question made it very difficult for Parliament to decide who should reign after Charles. His next heir was his brother James, but James was a Roman Catholic, and the country wished to have a Protestant. Parliament, led by Shaftesbury, one of the ablest of the statesmen of this time, tried to pass a bill called the Exclusion Bill, that would exclude James from the throne; but it failed, partly because the king did everything that he could against it, and partly because people could not unite upon a successor to Charles. Some wished to give the crown to the Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles, and some wished to give it to one of James's two daughters. They were both Protestants, and Mary, the elder, had married William, Prince of Orange. Some thought that the only safe way was to exclude James and his children. When it was found to be impossible to carry the bill through Parliament, a number of its extreme advocates, in 1683, formed a plot to murder both Charles and the Duke of York. The conspiracy, known as the Rye House plot, was discovered, and several of those concerned in it were executed.

**188. The "Habeas Corpus Act," 1679.**—In the midst of all these quarrels the famous "Habeas Corpus Act" was passed by Parliament. The Act gets its name from the first two words of the writ, or written order, issued by a judge, which directs the sheriff to have the accused person produced in court, in order that the judge may be satisfied that the prisoner is detained in jail for just cause; the words mean, "have the body." This had long been a leading principle of English law, but on many occasions it had, by various means, been disregarded. Both Mary of Scotland and Sir Walter Raleigh had spent long years in prison without any trial or legal sentence. By the Act of 1679, however, any man confined in jail can demand to be brought at once before a judge, and if no reasonable cause is shown why he should be kept in jail, he can demand his release. Under this Act it is no longer

possible to imprison a man without just cause, or to keep him in jail for any length of time without a trial.

**189. Whig and Tory.**—It was during the excitement over the Exclusion Bill that the words Whig and Tory first came into general use. The friends of the Duke of York were naturally opponents of the bill. Some one noted that the duke favoured Irishmen, and immediately all who opposed the measure were called *Tories*, which originally signified an Irish robber or “bog-trotter,” that is, a man who lived an outcast life among the bogs. A little later the friends of the bill were called *Whigs*, which was a nickname first given to Scottish rebels. Within a very few years these nicknames were accepted by the people to whom they were given, and a little later they became the names of the two great parties into which England was divided.

**190. The death of the king.**—Charles was now only fifty-five years of age, but he was old before his time, worn out with dissipation. He died in 1685. Even at the point of death, however, his ready wit and cheerfulness did not desert him, and to those who were with him he apologized for being so long in dying.

## SUMMARY

On the return of Charles II the regicide judges were punished. Parliament was devoted to an extravagant, ungrateful, and dissolute king, who cared for little but his own disgraceful amusements. Gradually two parties were formed in the kingdom, one determined to maintain the hereditary succession to the throne, a course that would increase the power of the sovereign; the other determined to secure for the future a Protestant ruler. The reign was marked by the Great Plague, which was followed by the Great Fire of London. Wars, which brought disgrace upon England, were fought with the Dutch, and the shameful treaty of Dover was concluded with France. Puritans and Quakers were persecuted. The harassing of the Puritans brought forth “*The Pilgrim’s Progress*,” written by John Bunyan. The Habeas Corpus Act was passed.

## 5. JAMES II. 1685-1688

**191. The accession of James II.**—When the Duke of York succeeded to the throne as James II, the nation on the whole

was strongly disposed in his favour. He promised "to preserve this government both in church and state as it is now established," and in this promise the people had faith. It was commonly said, "We have now the word of a king, and a word never yet broken."

**192. The Argyle and Monmouth rebellions.**—During the last years of Charles II, many of the extreme Whigs had fled from England and taken refuge in Holland. Disappointed at the peaceful accession of James, they began to plot rebellion. Among these exiles was the Earl of Argyle, the leader of the clan of the Campbells, who had upheld the Covenant. He now went to Scotland with a small army, hoping that the Scots would rise in rebellion against the government. He then intended to join the Duke of Monmouth, who had planned an invasion of England, and to assist



JAMES II

him in dethroning James. But the Scots did not rise; Argyle was captured and executed. So ruthless did the persecution of the Covenanters now become, that, in the south of Scotland, these years were afterwards known as the "killing time."

In the meantime, Monmouth had landed at Lyme Regis on the Dorsetshire coast, and was soon joined by five or six thousand of the country people. He boldly claimed the title of king; but the nobility and gentlemen kept away from him. At Sedgemoor he attacked the royal army and was badly defeated. Many of his followers were caught and hanged at once, and he himself was taken prisoner. Brought into the presence of James, he pleaded hard for mercy, but in vain; he was ordered to the block.

The execution of the leader of the rebellion was no more than could have been expected; but on the country people who had supported him, a pitiless revenge was taken by Colonel Kirke and his ferocious soldiers, "Kirke's Lambs."

Much worse than even this was the tour of the chief justice of England, George Jeffreys, who went about through the rebellious districts holding a court which became known as the "Bloody Assizes." The trials of the victims were the merest mockery. "More than three hundred were put to death, and more than eight hundred were sold to slavery in the West Indian plantations." When Jeffreys returned to London, he was raised to the office of lord chancellor.



LORD JEFFREYS

**193. Arbitrary rule of James.—**

The aim of James, during the first part of his reign, was to restore to the Roman Catholics the free exercise of their religion, and to employ them in the government and in the army, without in any way relaxing the laws against the Protestant dissenters. Taking advantage of the rebellion under Monmouth, he had largely increased the standing army, and had granted, contrary to the Test Act, commissions to many Roman Catholics. When Parliament met, he demanded that money should be granted for the support of the increased army, and that the Test Act should be repealed. Parliament, however, alarmed at the open violation of the law by the king, resolutely refused to agree to a repeal of the Test Act, and granted only a portion of the sum demanded for the payment of the troops. As there was no possibility of coming to an agreement, James prorogued the Parliament, and later dissolved it.

Now that the king had failed to secure the repeal of the Test Act, he was obliged to fall back on the royal prerogative. He claimed for himself, as king of England, the right to dispense with the laws in any case in which he should wish to do so. In order to make certain of the legality of this "dispensing power," he had a test case brought before the courts, taking care, however, first, to remove from the bench several judges who would not agree to support him.

With one exception, the judges decided that the king had the power claimed. The effect of this decision was at once evident. Roman Catholics were appointed to offices in the army, in the government, and even in the church. Protestants were removed from office and their places taken by Roman Catholics. The worship of the Roman Catholic church was openly celebrated in London. In order to control the clergy of the established church, the Court of High Commission was revived and Jeffreys placed at its head. The opening of Roman Catholic chapels had so enraged the people of London that riots were frequent; to overawe the populace James established a camp of sixteen thousand soldiers on Hounslow Heath near the city.

In spite of the outward improvement in their condition, many thoughtful Roman Catholics were beginning to grow uneasy. They felt that the king, by his arbitrary actions, had conferred no real benefit upon them, but had rather left them open to increased disabilities, should a Protestant king or queen succeed to the throne. Even the king himself felt the danger of his position, and, as he could expect little support from the established church, he resolved to make an appeal for the aid of the Protestant dissenters. Accordingly, in April, 1687, he issued a Declaration of Indulgence, which allowed freedom of worship to all, Roman Catholics and Protestant dissenters alike, and abolished all religious tests as a qualification for holding office. Many of the dissenters were much pleased at the action of the king, and declared loudly in his favour; but the greater number suspected his real design, and, moreover, they saw clearly that if the king could do away with one law, he could dispense with all the laws, and thus become supreme in the state.

James now made an attack on the liberties of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and still further antagonized the established church. The vice-chancellor of Cambridge was deprived of his office; a Roman Catholic was appointed to the headship of Magdalen College, Oxford; the members of Oxford University who refused to submit to the mandates of the king were dismissed. It was feared

that both universities would soon be entirely under the control of the Roman Catholics.

To his great disappointment, James had found that the Protestant dissenters were not giving him the support that he expected. In the hope of gaining over those who still held out, he issued in April, 1688, a second Declaration of Indulgence. In this he renewed the grant of freedom of worship, and further promised to call a Parliament not later than November, at the same time urging that men who were favourable to religious freedom should be returned as members. The Declaration was ordered to be read in all churches on two successive Sundays.



MEDAL STRUCK IN HONOUR OF THE BISHOPS

Before the appointed Sunday on which the Declaration was to be read for the first time, six bishops presented privately to the king a petition, signed by themselves and by Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, asking that the order be withdrawn. In the petition, they set forth their loyalty to the crown and their desire for religious toleration, but held that, as Parliament had frequently declared that the king had no power to dispense with the laws, the Declaration was illegal, and that, as such, they could not conscientiously assist in its publication. The king was furiously angry. "God has given me the dispensing power," he said, "and I will maintain it." The bishops could not prevail on him to withdraw the order, and they retired. The

Declaration, however, was read in very few of the churches throughout the kingdom. In the three or four London churches in which the clergymen attempted to read it, the congregations left the churches in a body. The spirit of the nation was aroused; dissenters joined with Anglicans in their opposition to the illegal acts of the king.

James was alarmed at the storm he had raised, but he would not recede. The seven bishops were sent to the Tower, and a charge of seditious libel laid against them. Never was there such an uprising of popular sympathy. When the bishops left their boat to enter the Tower, the crowd that thronged the shore fell on their knees and begged for a blessing. One of the bishops, Trelawney, was from Cornwall, and the stout-hearted Cornishmen began to sing:—

“And shall Trelawney die?  
And shall Trelawney die?  
There’s twenty thousand Cornishmen  
Will know the reason why.”

The trial, which was delayed for some weeks, ended in the triumphant acquittal of the bishops. When the verdict was announced, London went wild with delight; the streets were all aglow with bonfires, and the houses shone with illuminations; even the soldiers in the camp on Hounslow Heath joined in the general acclamations. The humiliation of the king was complete; the dispensing power had received a fatal blow.

194. **The question of the succession.**—James’s two daughters were Protestants, and it is possible that the nation would have borne with the king much longer had it not been that while the bishops were in the Tower a son was born to him. This altered matters, as the boy would be brought up as a Roman Catholic, and there would be only a continuation of the struggle of the last three years—for all these troubles had come to pass within that short time. The only way out of the difficulty was to appeal to William, Prince of Orange, who had married James’s eldest daughter, Mary, and who was himself, after the children of the king, the heir to the throne. Ten days after the birth of the Prince



of Wales, a letter, signed by a number of the leading men in the kingdom, was sent to William urging him to come to England and by force of arms to restore liberty to the country. William accepted the invitation, and a short time afterwards landed in England with an army of thirteen thousand men.

**195. The "Revolution of 1688."**—When it was known that William had reached England, the nobles and clergy flocked to his standard. The very men who had urged James on his course now deserted him; even the Princess Anne abandoned her father and fled to the protection of William. When James saw that he could not depend upon his closest friends and when the army refused to follow him, he gave up all thought of armed resistance. He made concession after concession, but it was too late. Deserted by all, he finally escaped to France late in December, 1688, no attempt being made to prevent him, and there he was royally received by King Louis.

William, in the meantime, had, without any delay, marched on London, and had taken possession of the city. A few riots and some destruction of property took place, but the "Revolution of 1688" is perhaps the only great revolution in which no blood was shed. Jeffreys, the lord chancellor, was badly frightened, for he was without his royal protector and in the midst of thousands of people who hated him most bitterly. He disguised himself and tried to escape, but he was captured and imprisoned in the Tower, where he remained until he died.

**196. The Convention of 1689.**—The moment James fled from England the country was without any ordered government. There was no one who was legally authorized to call a Parliament, but the House of Lords and the leading men in the country requested William to carry on the government for the time, and in his own name to invite the electors to send representatives to a Convention to be held at London. This Convention, which met in January, 1689, declared that, as the king had violated the Constitution, and had broken the original contract between king and people, they were no longer bound to obey him, and that.

as he had fled from the country, the throne was vacant. A Declaration of Rights was then drawn up, which traced the whole history of the contest with the king, stated clearly the rights and liberties of the people, and closed by declaring William and Mary king and queen of England, the actual government to be carried on by the king. William at once accepted the crown, both for himself and for his wife, and promised to rule according to the laws of England.

### SUMMARY

James succeeded to the throne without opposition. Rebellions, under Argyle in Scotland and Monmouth in England, were sternly suppressed. James, in spite of the opposition of Parliament, did all in his power to restore the Roman Catholic church in England. He declared that both Roman Catholics and Protestants should have religious freedom, and required all clergymen to read in their churches a proclamation to this effect, contrary as it was to the laws of the land. Seven bishops petitioned against this ordinance and were sent to the Tower, but were acquitted. The birth of a prince, who would be brought up as a Roman Catholic, aroused the people to invite William, Prince of Orange, to come to their assistance. James fled to France. A Convention, which met in 1689, at the call of William, declared the throne vacant and elected William and Mary king and queen of England.

## 6. WILLIAM III AND MARY II. 1689-1702

197. **Limitations of the royal power.**—In the autumn of 1689 Parliament passed an Act called the Bill of Rights, confirming the Declaration of Rights issued by the Convention which had met ten months before. The bill provided that, without the consent of Parliament, the king should not set aside the laws or maintain a standing army; that the election of members of Parliament should be free from interference, and that Parliament should be frequently assembled; that William and Mary should reign as joint sovereigns, with the practical care of the government in the hands of William; that if either William or Mary died the other should continue to reign; that if they left no children, the crown should descend to Anne, the sister of

Mary and her heirs; and that no Roman Catholic or person marrying a Roman Catholic should be eligible for the crown of England.

The Bill of Rights is the third great document that goes to make up the English constitution. Magna Carta, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights form what Lord Chatham called the "Bible of the English Constitution," and, according to these three charters, Great Britain is now governed.

The power of Parliament was also increased at this time by two important changes. In the first place the Mutiny Act, passed early in the reign, gave the king power to enforce discipline in the army by martial law, but for only one year at a time. This Act, under various names, has been renewed from year to year ever since; if it were not renewed, a soldier could desert or disobey his officers without being subject to military discipline. In the second place, Parliament a little later adopted the plan of voting the king a revenue for only one year at a time. This, with the Mutiny Act, has compelled the king to call Parliament together annually, and so enabled it to keep a close oversight of the government, and of the condition of the country.

**198. Increase of liberty.**—The king's power was decreasing and the people's power was increasing. Perhaps no one thing was more favourable to the strength of the people than the freedom that was now given to print more nearly what any one chose. Before this time no one had been allowed to print anything without the permission of the government inspector; and even under William, if an editor printed any of the speeches made in Parliament, he ran some danger of being fined or imprisoned; but even this partial freedom was a long step in the right direction.



WILLIAM III

An important question was how much liberty to allow to the various churches. In 1689 a Toleration Act was passed which granted freedom of worship to nearly all except Roman Catholics; against them the penal laws were not relaxed. William himself was in favour of the utmost religious toleration. He had come from a land where people were free to believe as they would. When he was proclaimed king of Scotland, the usual oath was presented to him, that he would be "careful to root out all heretics and enemies to the true worship of God." As he repeated it, he said gravely, "I do not mean by these words that I am under any obligation to be a persecutor." Throughout his reign his influence was exercised always on the side of toleration.

**199. The beginning of party government.**—Since the days of the Cabal, whoever ruled England had been accustomed to select a little group of special advisers who had received the name of Cabinet, because they met in a small room instead of in the large council chamber. These ministers were servants of the crown, and held their office at



MARY II

the pleasure of the king. They frequently did not agree among themselves, and were often in conflict with the majority in the House of Commons. Lord Sunderland, one of the leading men in the kingdom, advised William that he should choose all his ministers from the Whigs, as that party had the majority in the House of Commons. The results were so satisfactory that in time the custom grew up of always choosing the whole Cabinet from whichever party could, for the time being, count on the support

of the representatives of the people.

**200. Opposition to William**—It could not be expected that everybody in England would be delighted to have one king sent away and another put on the throne, and there were

two classes of people that were especially opposed to the course taken by the country. The leaders of one party were five of the seven bishops whom James had sent to the Tower, and with them were several hundred other clergymen. They were honest in their opposition, and gave up their churches rather than take the oath of allegiance to William as their lawful king; for the reason that they refused to swear they were called "Non-jurors."

The other class of people that were opposed to William were called Jacobites, from *Jacobus*, the Latin word for James. Some of them firmly believed that James ought to be on the throne; and some merely thought it quite possible that he might succeed in regaining his power, and wished to stand well with him if such should be the case. The Jacobites were more numerous in Ireland and in Scotland than in England. James knew that to land in England and try to regain the crown was hopeless, but he thought that he could make the attempt either in Ireland or in Scotland, as he felt sure that in those countries there were many who would support him. He trusted that after his rule had been established in these two lands, he would be strong enough to venture to go to England.

**201. The struggle in Scotland.**—The hopes of James, however, were soon shattered in Scotland. In southern Scotland, even more than in England, the actions of James had roused the bitter opposition of the people. Shortly after the news of his flight was received, a Convention met at Edinburgh, deposed the king, and offered the crown to William and Mary. William at once accepted the crown and sent several of his best regiments to hold the country.

There was one man in Scotland who was deeply dissatisfied with the action of the Convention. This was the famous John Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, better known in the Scottish ballads as "Bonnie Dundee." He had been one of the most active agents of the king in the persecutions of the Covenanters, and was warmly attached to the cause of his royal master. He immediately fled to the Highlands and endeavoured to raise the

clans on behalf of King James. So well did he succeed that soon he had an army of Highlanders who were ready to follow wherever he would lead. He at once marched southwards, and, in July, 1689, met the Lowland troops, under the command of General Mackay, in the pass of Killiecrankie. The Lowlanders were completely routed; but Dundee was killed in the moment of victory, and as there was no one to hold the Highland army together, it soon melted away. In a very short time all the clans submitted to the authority of William, and Scotland was once more at peace.

An oath of allegiance to William and Mary was demanded from the Highland chiefs. All of them, with the



VISCOUNT DUNDEE

exception of Macdonald of Glencoe, had taken the oath before the appointed time had expired. He was an old man, and a proud man, and in order to show his independence, he put off taking the oath until the last minute. Unfortunately, when he went to give in his submission, he went to the wrong place, and was, in consequence, seven days late in taking the oath. Dalrymple of Stair, who was in charge of the government in Scotland, resolved to make an example of Macdonald, and strike terror

into the hearts of the Highland chiefs. Early in 1692, Captain Campbell, with a small band of soldiers, was sent to Glencoe. They remained with the clansmen for some time, living on friendly terms with them and completely winning their confidence. Twelve days after his arrival, after a night of feasting, Campbell and his men fell upon the defenceless people and shot them down in cold blood. Most of those who escaped perished in the mountains from cold and hunger. The massacre of Glencoe, as it was called, was neither forgotten nor forgiven in the Highlands for many generations.

**202. The struggle in Ireland.**—In the meantime, early in 1689, James, accompanied by a number of French officers, landed in Ireland, where he found strong support. Except in the north, the people of Ireland had scarcely been affected by the new doctrines. In the neighbourhood of Dublin, there were a few English Protestants, but the south was almost wholly Roman Catholic. Tyrconnel, who had been the Lord Deputy of Ireland, had recruited a large army, and with these he now took the field on behalf of James. The few Protestants in the south fled in terror, while those in the north either escaped to England or gathered at Londonderry and at Enniskillen. Londonderry was besieged by James, but the inhabitants, led by an aged clergyman, George Walker, and Major Henry Baker, resisted bravely. The siege lasted one hundred and five days. Thirty thousand people of both sexes and all ages were shut up in the city and they were starving. A pound of tallow was worth four shillings, a rat one shilling. Four thousand people had already perished, when three ships from England broke the boom that had been constructed across the river Foyle, and brought food to the starving people. Three days later the men of Enniskillen were victorious at Newton Butler over a large force that was advancing to besiege their city.

The heroic defence of Londonderry had aroused such admiration in England that the Duke of Schomberg was at once sent with an army to Ireland. Little was accomplished, however, as Schomberg was a very cautious general and refused to risk everything on the result of a single battle. Early in 1690, the Irish army was strengthened by the addition of six thousand French veterans, while an equal number of the untrained Irish troops were taken into the service of France. Seeing clearly that he had made a mistake in sending such a small force under Schomberg, William made up his mind to go to Ireland in person with an army large enough to ensure victory. About the middle of June, 1690, he landed at Carrickfergus and advanced towards the Boyne at the head of an army of thirty-six thousand men. The combined Irish and French armies occupied a very strong position on the opposite side of the

river. In spite of the opposition of his generals, William determined to attempt the crossing, and on July 1st the attempt was made. Although wounded in a skirmish on the preceding day, William led his troops in person and won a signal victory, marred, however, by the death of Schomberg and of Walker, the heroic defender of Londonderry. James, at a comfortable distance, had watched the Irish fight for him and his crown. When he saw that his men were losing, he fled to Dublin and told the magistrates that he had always heard that the Irish were worthless soldiers. It is no wonder that an Irishman called out to one of William's men, "Change kings with us and we will fight you again." James soon passed over to France, while William followed up his success at the Boyne by the capture of Waterford. At Limerick, however, the Irish, under Patrick Sarsfield, successfully defied him, and at the end of August he returned to England.

General Ginkell, who commanded the English forces in Ireland during the campaign of 1691, was successful in capturing Athlone, and later in defeating the Irish and French at Aghrim, where General St. Ruth, the French commander was killed. The last hope of the Irish now lay in the successful defence of Limerick. But Ginkell was a brilliant soldier, and so hard did he press the attack on the town that Sarsfield was compelled to surrender. The Irish soldiers, as many as wished, were allowed to leave the country; several thousand of them, with Sarsfield at their head, abandoned their native land to become soldiers in the army of the French king.

The surrender of Limerick put an end to the civil war in Ireland and restored Protestant ascendancy, but the promises made at the surrender were not kept. The English Parliament set the example of intolerance; for the first time Roman Catholics were excluded from the Irish Parliament and were deprived of many of the rights they had enjoyed as private citizens. The native Irish were persecuted and fined, and their lands were confiscated. In 1699 the export of woollen manufactures was entirely prohibited, thus ruining the most flourishing industry in Ireland. This



outrageous treatment was begun at this time, but the worst of it was carried on after the reign of William had ended.

**203. The struggle with France**—Almost from his boyhood, William had been engaged in a struggle with his hereditary foe, Louis XIV, king of France. Indeed, it was largely with the hope of obtaining powerful aid in his fight with his old time enemy, that he had accepted the English throne. Louis, on his part, had long been trying to conquer Holland, and now, to have William not only oppose him successfully in Holland, but also to rule England to the loss of his friend James, was more than he could bear. War was declared in 1689, but for a time the English armies took little part in the fighting on the continent.

During the absence of William in Ireland, England was in a position of extreme danger. The French had been allowed to transport troops and supplies to Ireland almost without opposition; the landing of the six thousand French soldiers sent to the aid of James had not been opposed at all. Encouraged by this neglect, the French now gathered a large fleet under the Count of Tourville, with the object of destroying the English navy. In a battle off Beachy Head in 1690, the English and Dutch fleets, under Admiral Torrington, suffered a severe defeat, saved only from an overwhelming disaster by the obstinate courage of the Dutch. Tourville was master of the Channel; the descent of a French army was expected every moment. But Louis, although strongly urged by James, let the opportunity pass. Troops were hurriedly sent back from Ireland; levies were made in London and throughout the country; even the Jacobites themselves were prepared to resist the invasion of a foreign foe. By the time that William returned from Ireland, the peril of invasion was over, and England "had passed safely through one of the most dangerous crises in its national history."

Two years later, while William was on the continent, an elaborate plan was proposed for the invasion of England. Louis trusted that he had won over Admiral Russell, the commander of the English fleet, who was in strong sympathy with the exiled king. But the professional pride of

Russell was aroused, and when, in command of the English and Dutch fleets, he met the French off La Hogue, he at once attacked them and, after a severe encounter, put them to flight. This victory put an end to all thoughts of a successful attempt upon England. In commemoration of the battle of La Hogue, Mary gave up her palace at Greenwich, and turned it into a home for disabled seamen.

The war was now carried on vigorously on the continent. William succeeded in joining several of the continental powers in a confederacy against Louis, and himself took the field in command of the allied armies. He was unsuccessful at the battles of Steinkirk and Landen, but the power of France was being gradually weakened. At length, in 1697, the treaty of Ryswick was signed, by which Louis acknowledged William as king of England, and gave back all the territory he had won during the war.

A new danger now presented itself. The king of Spain was old and he had no children to inherit his throne and his large possessions. William was anxious that the Spanish dominions should not be united with those of France, as France would then become powerful enough to encroach upon other nations. Negotiations were accordingly entered into which resulted in the French king agreeing to a Partition Treaty, by which it was decided that a prince of Bavaria should succeed to the Spanish throne. The prince died, and a second Partition Treaty was signed, by which the crown and the greater part of the Spanish possessions were to go to a son of the emperor of Austria. When, however, the king of Spain died in 1700, he left his crown to a grandson of Louis XIV. The French king now refused to be bound by the Partition Treaty, and prepared to aid his grandson. William knew that he must fight, or his life work would be undone. But few people in England felt like engaging in another war; many of them did not believe that a union of France and Spain would threaten England with any real danger. Just at this time, however, James II died, and Louis, contrary to the treaty of Ryswick, immediately acknowledged James III as king of England. This roused the English people to a sense of their danger,

and William found no difficulty in carrying on his preparations for war. He succeeded in forming a "Grand Alliance" among the powers of Europe for the purpose of defeating the plans of Louis. William did not live to take any part in the war, the conduct of which was intrusted to John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough.

**204. The Act of Settlement, 1701.**—As William was childless, and the only son of the Princess Anne had just died, Parliament was called upon to settle the succession to the throne. The Act of Settlement, passed in 1701, provided that in the event of Anne dying childless, the crown should pass to the Princess Sophia of Hanover, the granddaughter of James I, and her heirs, if Protestants. The Act also provided that the judges of the kingdom should hold their positions during good behaviour, and prevented their being removed at the pleasure of the king.

William's health had always been delicate, and now gave cause for grave anxiety. He died in 1702, as the result of a fall from his horse, which is said to have stumbled over a molehill. The Jacobites were afterwards accustomed to drink to the health of the mole, "the little gentleman in black velvet," as they called him, that had caused the death of the king.

**205. Feeling towards William and Mary.**—William's life in England was not pleasant, but it may be that the secret of much of the discomfort he had to meet was that his manner was cold and reserved. He was neither fascinating in his manner nor handsome, and he knew English so imperfectly that he wrote his speeches to Parliament in French. The people were ready to criticise whatever William did. But he went on conscientiously to the end of his reign. He was never popular, and it was felt that his chief interests lay rather on the continent than in England. But the English people were fond of Mary. She was gentle and kind, and as eager to do well by them as her husband was. William was heart-broken when she died in 1694, for she seems to have been the only person in the world who really understood and appreciated this silent, undemonstrative man.

206. **Financial reforms.**—The heavy cost of the wars during the reign of William made it necessary, in order to lighten the burden of taxation, to borrow money from the wealthy people of the kingdom for the purposes of the government. In 1694, William Paterson, a Scotsman, suggested that a bank be established, which would receive deposits from the people and lend the money to the government. The plan was adopted, and in this way the Bank of England, probably the strongest financial institution in the world, had its beginning. A further financial reform was the recoinage of all the money in the kingdom. Much of it was worn out and mutilated by clipping. The coin



COSTUMES, TIME OF WILLIAM AND MARY

had been made with smooth edges, so that with a sharp knife one could cut a strip of metal from a coin and it would not be noticed. But the new coins were made with milled edges, in order that no metal could be cut off without showing. The public sent in their old money to the government, and received in exchange fresh, new coins of full weight, the government bearing the loss of the difference in value.

## SUMMARY

In William, England had at last a king who wished to make laws for the good of the land, even though they lessened his own power. Increased religious liberty was granted, and more freedom was given to the press. Nevertheless, there was opposition to William's rule by the "Non-jurors" and the Jacobites. James's hopes of regaining the crown in Scotland were shattered by the death of Dundee, but, with the assistance of Louis of France, he made a desperate attempt to hold Ireland. The attempt failed and James was forced to return to France. Louis attempted to invade England, but was unsuccessful. The war was closed by the treaty of Ryswick, but soon broke out again. The Act of Settlement was passed in 1701. The Bank of England was established and the coinage reformed.

## 7. ANNE. 1702-1714

**207. Brilliant reign of Queen Anne.**—The accession of the new queen made no change in the government of England. Anne was well liked by all the English people, although she was a strong supporter of the established church, and disliked all dissenters. She was easy of approach and charitable towards the poor. In addition, the death of her children, one by one, had touched the hearts of the people, and they gave her a hearty support during her reign. Though Anne herself was without great ability, yet the twelve years of her sovereignty form one of the most interesting periods in literature and one of the most brilliant in military success that have ever occurred in the whole history of the British empire.



ANNE

**208. Union between England and Scotland, 1707.**—One important subject which everybody was discussing at this time was whether England and Scotland should be united. Since

the reign of James I, one hundred years before, the two countries had had one king, but two Parliaments and different laws. The Scots and English had been constantly at war with each other, and a feeling of intense hatred had grown up between them. One cause of this was the religious persecutions under Charles II and James II.

Scotland at this time was a very poor country. It had little commerce and little agriculture, and the peasants were for the most part miserably poor. Indeed, one of the greatest of the Scottish patriots gave it as his opinion that the only way to cure the evils of poverty was to make all the poorer people serfs. During the latter part of William's reign, the merchants of Scotland had entered into a gigantic trading scheme, called the "Darien Company," which was to bring great wealth to the country by opening up a trade with the Isthmus of Darien. The company failed, and thousands were ruined. The failure of the scheme was ascribed to the hostility of the English merchants, and this made the feeling in Scotland even more bitter.

The wiser men in both Scotland and England saw that the only remedy for the state of affairs was union between the two countries. Scotland, under a separate government, with its love for the Stuarts, was a constant source of danger to England, while, on the other hand, Scotland could not help being benefited commercially by the union. The question caused much discussion and much bitterness, but the result was that in 1707 the two countries were united under the name of Great Britain. It was agreed that there should be a single Parliament for the united nations, in which Scotland should have adequate representation. Scotland was to keep the Presbyterian form of worship, to retain her own law courts, to have free trade with England and equal trading privileges in all English colonies. A new national flag was adopted, made by placing the cross of St. George over the cross of St. Andrew.

**209. The War of the Spanish Succession.**—The war against Louis, begun during the reign of William, was continued with great vigour by Marlborough. The allies at first included England, Holland, Prussia, and Austria, but these

were later joined by Portugal and Savoy. Marlborough had a hard task to perform in reconciling the various conflicting interests, and his greatness is shown quite as much by the way in which he held the allies together as by the victories he won. The campaigns of 1702 and 1703 were without definite results. But in 1704, Marlborough, to prevent an attack by the French on Vienna, by a wonderfully rapid march, succeeded in uniting his army with that of Prince Eugene of Savoy, and gave battle to the French and Bavarian armies at the village of Blenheim on the Danube River. The brilliant strategy of Marlborough enabled the allies to win an overwhelming victory. Blenheim is one of the decisive battles of history, as it shattered forever Louis's dream of sovereignty over Europe; the French armies were no longer considered invincible. The people of England were so grateful to the duke that they built him a palace, with grounds twelve miles in circumference; and that the victory might never be forgotten, they named the palace Blenheim. In the museum at Blenheim Palace is the duke's letter to his wife announcing his victory; it was written while he was on horseback, and after fifteen continuous hours in the saddle.

In the same year that Blenheim was won, Sir George Rooke, in command of an English fleet, captured Gibraltar, and held it against the combined fleets of France and Spain. This strong fortress has ever since remained in possession of Great Britain. In the next year the Earl of Peterborough won several important victories in Spain, and reduced a portion of the country.

The campaign of 1706 saw the brilliant victory of Ramillies and the expulsion of the French from Italy, but in the next year there was nothing but disaster. Again, in 1708,



DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH

Marlborough defeated the French at Oudenarde, and this was followed in 1709 by another decisive victory at Malplaquet. The allies suffered severely. In the meantime, they had lost ground in Spain; the Spanish people had risen against them, so that by 1711 they had scarcely a foothold in the country.

In addition to the difficulty that Marlborough had in keeping the allies on friendly terms with one another, he had a greater difficulty to contend with at home. Party jealousy reached its height in the reign of Anne. The Whigs were in power and were favourable to the war, while the Tories wished for peace and desired the return of the house of



FASHIONABLE LADY IN THE TIME OF  
QUEEN ANNE

Stuart. The Tories, who hated the duke, did everything in their power to ruin his authority and to undermine his influence with the queen. For many years Anne had been governed, in great things as well as small, by the Duchess of Marlborough. The name of the duchess was Sarah, and people used to say, "Queen Anne reigns, but Queen Sarah rules."

These two ladies wrote to each other almost every day. They dropped their titles and took feigned names; the duchess was "Mrs. Freeman" and the queen was "Mrs. Morley." After the war had gone on for some time these two devoted friends fell out and the queen took a new favourite, Mrs. Masham, who was a Tory and wished to end the war. Soon afterwards the queen dismissed her Whig ministers, and the Tories, who were bent on bringing the war to an end, came into power. Marlborough was accused of taking money in connection with the army contracts, and was removed from his command.



The allies were forced to join in the peace negotiations, and finally, in 1713, the treaty of Utrecht was signed. Substantial advantages were gained by Great Britain. Nova Scotia was given up by France, and all claims to Newfoundland and the Hudson Bay Territory were abandoned. Spain ceded Gibraltar and Minorca and agreed to allow one English ship each year to trade with the Spanish possessions in America. The French king also promised that the crowns of France and Spain should not be united, and that he would recognize the Protestant succession in Great Britain.

**210. Social progress and customs.**—It is difficult for us to picture the England of two hundred years ago. The population was about equal to that of London to-day. There were no large factories, no steamboats, no canals, no railways, not even good roads. Coaches were coming into use, but people of quality usually travelled in sedan chairs. Wool was extensively raised and made into cloth in the same valleys where the sheep pastured. The hum of the spinning-wheel and the click of the shuttle made music in every cottage; even children of six or eight years were taught to earn their own living. Eleven hundred looms were in operation in Taunton alone. Stockings, introduced in the time of Elizabeth, were becoming common in the reign of Anne, and nine thousand stocking-loom were now in operation.

Some iron was smelted, but only by charcoal, and this took so much wood that the smelting business was not carried on to any extent. Very few articles of iron were made in Britain; even frying-pans and anvils were imported. Coarse pottery was becoming common, but the peasants still ate off wooden trenchers. Fine porcelain was brought from Holland for the wealthy classes.

The peasants lived in miserable hovels with mud floors and thatched roofs. They received less than one shilling a day, and in summer worked from 5 a.m. to 7.30 p.m., with two hours off for meals. They had few comforts, wore coarse homespun clothes, ate little wheat bread, never tasted tea or coffee, and had meat perhaps twice a week. They were ignorant and often vicious; their pleasures were coarse but

hearty—country fairs, dances, wrestling and grinning matches, and foot-races.

The middle classes, chiefly farmers, tradesmen, and owners of small manufactories, lived in rude plenty. Their homes



DANDY OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

were comfortable, even luxurious. They received some education and made steady progress. Of the upper classes, a fine beau of the day may be taken as a good type. From ten o'clock until one he received visits in bed, wearing a powdered wig, and taking a pinch of snuff or a whiff at a smelling bottle. By three o'clock he was dressed, had perfumed his clothes and perhaps tinted his cheeks with carmine. He now dipped his handkerchief in rose water, carefully tied his cravat, cocked his hat upon his head, and sallied out in his chair to a coffee-house, there to listen to the latest gossip of the

court and the street.

Tea had not yet become common, but coffee and chocolate were popular drinks, and houses where they were sold became favourite meeting-places for all classes of people. Newspapers were as yet few and gave very little news. The coffee-houses were centres of gossip and conversation.

**211. Literature under the Stuarts.**—The whole tone of English literature was changed completely during the Puritan domination. The Puritans turned their attention particularly to the life beyond. They felt that this life is a constant warfare between good and evil, and their literature reflects this conflict. The "Paradise Lost" of John Milton, the great Puritan poet, is an epic of the warfare of good and evil. In the sublimity of his subject and the nobility of his ideals, he is the true representative of all that is best in Puritanism. At the Restoration all was changed again. The poetry of France was the model

followed, and in this, more attention was paid to the manner of expressing the thought than to the thought itself. The representative poet of this period is John Dryden. In his poems, Dryden, in exquisite verse, appeals rather to the minds of men than to their feelings. His poems are for the most part cold and formal; he wrote of philosophy, politics, natural science and religion. The loss of poetry was the gain of prose.

In Anne's day there was far less that was exciting and inspiring than in the reign of Elizabeth, and people wrote but little poetry that seems really noble and great; yet the ability to write prose had been developing, and the prose of this period is so graceful and musical, and so precise in using the right word for the thought, that even after these two hundred years it is as great a pleasure to read it as it was in Queen Anne's time. Some of the best of it is found in Addison's articles in the *Spectator*. This paper made no attempt to tell the news of the day, but presented brilliant essays that jested good-humouredly at the faults of the times, and interesting sketches of what was going on in the busy English world. Many numbers were written by Addison alone. Dean Swift, the author of "Gulliver's Travels," and Daniel Defoe, the author of "Robinson Crusoe," were among the most brilliant political writers of the day.

The works of Alexander Pope well represent the poetry of the age of Anne. His ideas were keen and sensible and well expressed, and his couplets are, therefore, so often quoted that no one can read his poems without finding many familiar lines; and yet the poetry of the time does not make us feel as if the writer was so full of lofty and beautiful thoughts that he could not help writing, but rather as if he had tried his best to put every thought



DEAN SWIFT

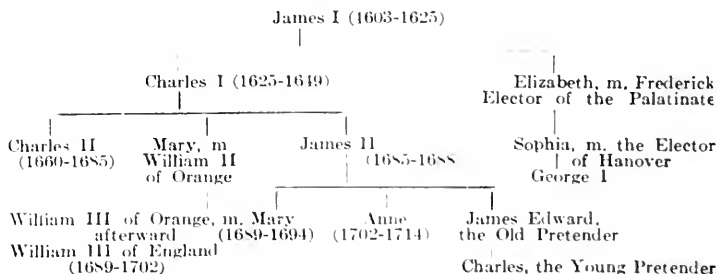
that he did have in the words that would express it most strikingly.

**212. The last Stuart sovereign.**—Anne was the last of the Stuarts to wear the English crown. Her half-brother, James Edward, still lived, and it is quite possible that he might have been made king of Great Britain, if he had been willing to become a Protestant. Anne's children had all died, and the crown went, as Parliament had decided in the Act of Settlement, to a German prince, George, Elector of Hanover, the son of the Princess Sophia. Britain had had a Norman king and a Dutch king; now, she was to be ruled by a German.

### SUMMARY

Queen Anne's reign is famous for the excellence of its prose literature and for its foreign victories. To prevent an alliance between France and Spain and the consequent triumph of France in Europe, England declared war against Louis XIV. Under the Duke of Marlborough there were brilliant victories on land, and under Sir George Rooke the strong fortress of Gibraltar was taken. By the treaty of Utrecht Great Britain gained Gibraltar, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay Territory. Scotland and England were united, though the union was not heartily desired by either country.

### THE HOUSE OF STUART



## CHAPTER VIII

### THE HOUSE OF HANOVER

1714—

#### 1. GEORGE I. 1714-1727

**213. Changes in government.**—The new king was in no hurry to leave his German province of Hanover, where he had lived happily for fifty-four years. He was an honourable, well-meaning man, but coarse and lacking in intelligence. He could not speak English, and the government of Great Britain by a king and a Parliament was a complete mystery to him. He had no choice, therefore, but to intrust the management of affairs to his Cabinet, which was made up entirely of Whigs. The rule of the Cabinet had been growing more and more independent of the sovereign. It became more so in this reign, as George could not understand English, and did not attend its meetings. Some one had to be chosen to preside in the place of the king. To him the title of premier, or prime minister, was afterwards given. The first to be so called was Sir Robert Walpole, who became the head of the Cabinet in 1721.



GEORGE I

**214. The Jacobite rising, 1715.**—The Jacobites had allowed George to be crowned without making any trouble. But the exclusion of the Tories from office, and the belief that the Whigs would repeal the laws against dissenters,

made the strong supporters of the English church very angry, although they were not prepared to go to extremes. In Scotland, however, the Stuarts were always certain of loyal support, and the Earl of Mar raised a large force in the interest of the "Pretender," James Edward, the son of James II, who caused himself to be proclaimed king. Battles followed at Sheriffmuir and Preston; the first was indecisive, and the second resulted in the surrender of the Jacobite army. Unaware of these reverses, the Pretender hurried over to Scotland with only six followers. He had expected to bring with him French soldiers, but Louis XIV had died, and the new king would give no aid.

Unfortunately for the cause of James Edward, the more people saw of him the less enthusiasm they felt. He was heavy and slow, and seemed to have no interest in the men who were risking so much to support him. When King George's forces were upon them, the courageous Scots wished to put him in their midst, and fight till the last man fell; but their proclaimed king preferred not to fight. He quietly sailed away to France, leaving his friends to manage as best they could. A few were put to death for treason, but on the whole the prisoners were leniently treated.

**215. The Septennial Act, 1716.**—The Triennial Act, passed in the reign of William III, had fixed three years as the life of a Parliament. Now, in the disturbed condition of the country following the troubles with the Jacobites, it was felt to be dangerous and inconvenient to have frequent elections, and accordingly a Septennial Act was passed extending the term during which a Parliament might serve to seven years. This Act is, in 1910, still in force.

**216. The South Sea Bubble.**—The reign of George I is always associated with a financial scheme that—after it failed—was called the South Sea Bubble, and that resulted in ruin to many thousand Englishmen. The South Sea Company had a monopoly of British trade with the Spanish colonies in America, and the members had become immensely rich. In order to secure government support in their enterprise, and so increase their profits, the company offered to pay off a large part of the national

debt. They said to the government, "We will give you seven and one-half million pounds if you will allow people to exchange your bonds for our stock; we shall be satisfied with a smaller rate of interest than you have been paying these people, and we will buy out the claims of those who do not wish to exchange." The people were so convinced of the immense profits to be made, and so certain of the standing of the company, that the stock was eagerly taken. Soon purchasers were offering for it ten times its face value.

Then arose a perfect mania for speculation; people were ready to put their money into anything. Soon "the bubble" burst and thousands were ruined. Members of the Cabinet had encouraged the scheme, and the losers were so indignant with them that they compelled them to resign; indeed one of the Cabinet was expelled from Parliament, and another poisoned himself. A new Cabinet was formed with Walpole as prime minister. He had, from the first, condemned the South Sea scheme, and was now the only man that had the popular confidence. The private property of the officers of the company was seized and distributed among those who had been the chief losers. The government also came to the rescue of the company, and something was done to relieve the general distress.

**217. Sir Robert Walpole.**—The real ruler of Great Britain during the reign of George I was Robert Walpole. His Cabinet was the first one formed according to the method that is followed to-day: that is, the king gave to his prime minister the power to choose the other members of the Cabinet. They were chosen from the Whig party, as the Whigs then had a majority in the House of Commons. Walpole was an excellent financier and man of business. He gave the country



SIR ROBERT WALPOLE

rest from wars for twenty years, and was careful not to stir up opposition among the people. He did not dare to repeal the laws excluding the dissenters from office, but he carried through Parliament an Act to give relief to those who did not obey the law.

As a man, Walpole was coarse and cynical. He had no sympathy with scholarly men, and did nothing to encourage learning. His rule was a one-man rule, for he firmly believed that, in order to carry on the government successfully, each member of the Cabinet should be loyal to its head. Under him England prospered. Her commerce was extended, her agriculture improved, and her manufactures increased. He was just the man that England needed at this juncture.

In 1727, while Walpole was still prime minister, George I died suddenly. On the road to Hanover he was stricken with apoplexy, and died in a few minutes.

### SUMMARY

The lax rule of George I gave all power into the hands of the Whigs, and left Sir Robert Walpole free to introduce many forms and details of government that have remained in force for nearly two centuries. Encouraged by the discontent of the Tories, the Scottish friends of the Pretender made an unsuccessful effort in his behalf. About the middle of the reign, a frenzy for speculation swept over the land. The failure of these schemes, and especially of the South Sea Bubble, reduced a great many people to poverty.

## 2. GEORGE II. 1727-1760

**218. The king and Walpole.**—Unlike his father, the second George could speak English, and could understand the language well enough to take part in public affairs. He had little ability, but had a high regard for justice. He would not knowingly allow any one to be wronged. He was a brave soldier, too; he had fought in the Netherlands, and in his own reign he commanded an army in another European war.

As a young man, George II had so disliked Walpole that it was generally expected when he became king he would



dismiss the prime minister. But the king was managed in most things by his clever wife, Queen Caroline, who believed that Walpole was the best man in Great Britain to preside over the government. She easily persuaded the king to retain him in office.

**219. The Spanish war.** — By the treaty of Utrecht, the British trade with South America was limited to a single vessel each year. This pleased neither the Spanish planters nor the British traders. The latter were eager to extend a trade which brought them large fortunes; the former were always ready to buy goods from merchants who gave them better prices than those who sent goods direct from Spain. In consequence, an extensive smuggling trade grew up, which the Spanish government in vain tried to prevent. In the effort, many British subjects were captured and cruelly treated. Tales of Spanish cruelty were brought to England and aroused great excitement. Finally, one Captain Jenkins came before the House of Commons, and exhibited an ear which he declared had been cut off by Spanish officials in the West Indies, and given to him with the words, "Go, take that to your king."

There had been a popular cry for a war with Spain, and this tale of Jenkins's ear roused a storm which Walpole, with all his love of peace, could not resist. Very much against his will, he was forced to declare war in 1739. When he heard the sound of the church bells that the people were ringing in their joy, he said, "They are ringing their bells now; they will be wringing their hands soon." His foresight was soon justified, as unexpected trouble was in store for Britain. The capture of Porto Bello, one of the Spanish possessions in South America, called forth a declaration from France that she would not permit a British settlement on



GEORGE II

the mainland, and two French fleets were sent to enforce the demand for withdrawal. At this moment, the death of Charles VI, the Emperor of Germany, brought on a struggle in Europe into which Britain was quickly drawn.

**220. War of the Austrian Succession.**—A short time before his death, Charles VI had secured the consent of the European powers to an arrangement by which his crown and his hereditary dominions as Emperor of Austria, would pass to his daughter Maria Theresa. On his death, however, Prussia at once broke the agreement, and seized the Austrian province of Silesia. Britain entered the field to support Maria Theresa, largely because France was giving aid to her enemies. The war was feebly urged by Walpole, and this, together with an unsuccessful attack by Admiral Vernon on Cartagena, so enraged the British people that, in 1742, Walpole was forced to resign.

Lord Carteret, who succeeded Walpole, was an aggressive war minister, and was heartily supported by the king. The Spaniards were compelled by a naval blockade to remain inactive, while George II, at the head of a British and Hanoverian army, was met by the French at Dettingen. George fought bravely and won a victory. Since his time no English king has led an army into battle. Two years later the French won a victory at Fontenoy, but this was more than made up for by the capture of Louisburg, which fell before an attack of the New Englanders under Colonel Pepperell, assisted by a British fleet. The war dragged on for two years longer, and was finally brought to a close by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. This treaty restored Louisburg to the French.

**221. The last effort of the Stuarts, 1745.**—Walpole had always said that whenever England went to war with France, there would be an attempt to restore the Stuarts to the throne, and this happened before the War of the Austrian Succession was ended. James Edward did not attempt to come again, but his son, Charles Edward, the "Young Pretender," came over the sea with only seven companions, and landed in the north of Scotland. The Highland clans rallied around "Bonnie Prince Charlie,"

and he soon had a force of six thousand men. With these he captured Edinburgh and attacked the king's troops at Prestonpans, where he won a complete victory.

Flushed with success, the young Pretender now invaded England and marched as far south as Derby. England was in a panic, and even the king prepared for instant flight. But few joined the invading army, and the prince, fearing that he would be surrounded, retreated to Scotland. The king's army, under the command of the Duke of Cumberland, followed, and the two forces met at Culloden Moor, where the prince suffered a terrible defeat. A reward of thirty thousand pounds was offered for his capture, but by the aid of a Highland lady, Flora Macdonald, he succeeded, after many romantic adventures, in reaching France in safety. This was the last attempt to restore the crown to the Stuarts.



CHARLES EDWARD STUART

After the battle of Culloden Moor the Highlanders were treated with great severity. Strict laws were passed in the effort to break up the clan system, even the wearing of the Highland dress being forbidden. A little later, however, several Highland regiments were added to the British army, and the Highlanders were thus given a chance to follow their military bent by enlisting.

**222. The Methodist movement.**—During the early part of the eighteenth century the moral and spiritual life of England had sunk to a low ebb. The clergy of the established church were worldly and without any real influence over their people. Bishops were often favourites of the

ministers in power, and looked for appointments mainly to draw the large incomes attached to their sees. There were, of course, many simple, earnest men among both the clergy and the bishops, but very many more were both careless and ignorant. The dissenters were far from being as earnest and godly as they had been a century before. The lower orders of the people were ignorant and vicious. The labouring poor were quite neglected, especially in the towns and in the mining districts. Ignorant, dirty, ragged, and poorly housed, their lives were a cheerless, hopeless grind. Drunkenness was a common vice of the people.

But a great change was at hand. About 1735, a small group of students at Oxford began to attract much attention



JOHN WESLEY

by their meetings for prayer and religious exercises. So enthusiastic and so methodical were they in their habits of devotion that they were given the nickname of "Methodists." From this earnest band of students spread a great religious revival which was to have a powerful effect on the spiritual and social life of the whole community. The two great leaders of the movement were John Wesley and George Whitfield. These

men threw themselves with whole-hearted devotion into the work of preaching the Gospel to the poor and the outcast of England. They travelled up and down the country, preaching in barns and houses and in the open air, and teaching the truths of the Bible to all who came to listen. As the bishops opposed this irregular work, the "Methodists" formed a society of their own, and accepted the name given at first in derision. Before the death of John Wesley in 1791, they counted their membership at more than one hundred thousand. Many of the great humanitarian movements of the latter part of the

eighteenth century may be traced to the influence of the Methodist revival.

**223. William Pitt and the Seven Years' War, 1756-63.**—In spite of the fact that Britain and France had been engaged in fighting for some time in America and in India, it was not until 1756 that war was formally declared in Europe. On the one side were arrayed Austria, France, and Russia, and on the other Prussia, Great Britain, and some of the smaller German states. Great Britain did not take an active part in the continental war, but assisted the Prussians with large sums of money.

Great Britain at this time was badly prepared for war. The prime minister, the Duke of Newcastle, was utterly incompetent. He knew and cared more about the buying of votes than about the management of a great war. The army was lacking in discipline, and under the command of men who knew little of the military art. The navy, too, at the very outset met with a most disastrous check. A French expedition had been sent against the island of Minorca, which at that time belonged to Great Britain. The garrison defended itself bravely, and Admiral Byng, with a British fleet, was despatched to its relief. When the Admiral reached the island, he decided that the French fleet was too strong, and sailed away without making any effort to relieve the garrison, which was finally compelled to surrender. The popular indignation was so great that, six months after his return to England, Byng was tried by court martial, and convicted of not having done his utmost to destroy the enemy's fleet. He was shot on the quarter-deck of his own ship.



WILLIAM PITT,  
EARL OF CHATHAM

Affairs were going from bad to worse when William Pitt

took charge of the conduct of the war. Pitt had first attracted attention as an opponent of the peace policy of Walpole, and had been known as the "Boy Patriot." In 1746, he had entered the ministry, but had not, so far, held any position of great importance. The continuous disasters to the British arms, and the feeling of dismay with which these were regarded in the country, brought him to the front. An arrangement was made by which Pitt was given entire control of the war, although Newcastle remained as prime minister. His enthusiasm at once spread itself to the Parliament and to the people. He had great faith in his country and in himself. "I know that I can save the country," he said to a friend, "and no one else can."

The hand of Pitt was soon evident in all the operations of the war. Incompetent officers were allowed no place in either the army or the navy, but young men of ability, even if they were poor and unknown, were given important commands. The Commons gave him its strongest support, and voted large sums of money. He confined his efforts in Europe to giving financial assistance to Frederick, while in America and India he pushed the war with all the energy of which he was capable. Well might Frederick of Prussia say, "England has at length brought forth a man."

**224. The conquest of Canada.**—In America the British had not been successful. General Braddock had been defeated at Fort Duquesne and the greater part of his army destroyed in 1755. In the following year the fortress of Oswego, which commanded Lake Ontario, yielded to the French, and this capture was followed by the seizure of Fort William Henry, an important British stronghold at the southern end of Lake George. But new life was given to the seemingly desperate campaign by Pitt's advent to power. He saw that if anything was to be accomplished, he must send plenty of men and his very best generals, with full authority to act as they thought best. The colonies were urged to co-operate with the king's troops, and they responded by raising a force of twenty thousand men. In 1758 Louisburg, a French stronghold in Cape Breton, was captured.

and the British thus secured a strong base of operations for the approaching siege of Quebec. Fort Duquesne and Fort Frontenac likewise yielded to British arms, though a heavy defeat at Ticonderoga counterbalanced these minor successes. Still Pitt's determination never wavered, and while the French general, Montcalm, was supplicating in vain for aid from France, Pitt continued to pour men and money into Canada.

The year 1759 saw the final concentration of British forces around Quebec. General Wolfe was in command, and opposing him was Montcalm, the brilliant French leader. Wolfe led his men by night up the cliff to the Plains of Abraham, and there was fought the battle which destroyed all hope of French supremacy in America. Both commanders were killed, but the British were victorious, and during the next year the whole of Canada fell into their hands.



JAMES WOLFE

**225. The war in India.**—While Great Britain was gaining an empire in America, a trading company was gaining one for her in the far East. From the time of Elizabeth, the East India Company had been carrying on a thriving trade in India. The company had three principal settlements or factories: on the west, Bombay; on the east, Madras; in the north, Fort William, afterwards named Calcutta. At each of these forts the company kept a small force of sepoys, or native soldiers, under British officers. The French also had a similar trading company, with headquarters at Pondicherry, near Madras. Dupleix, the French governor, an able and ambitious man, was devoted to the service of his country. He formed a plan by which he hoped to stir up the native rulers of India against Britain, and to drive the British East India Company out of Asia. Preparations were made to attack Madras.

A few years before this a wild, reckless lad, named Robert Clive, had been sent to India as a clerk in the service of the



ROBERT CLIVE

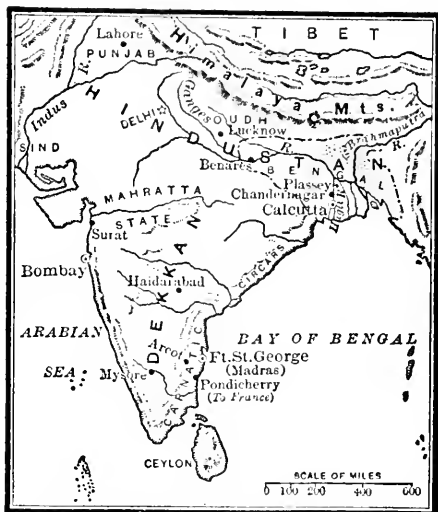
East India Company. Clive disliked his clerkship and longed to distinguish himself as a soldier. His opportunity soon came. When the French threatened Madras, he resigned his position and took service as a volunteer. At the capture of the settlement he was taken prisoner, but made his escape. He soon became the life of the British party in India.

In 1748, the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle restored Madras to the British, but this did not stop the fighting between the two trading companies. Three years later, Clive resolved to put an end to the French plots, and with a small force suddenly appeared before Arcot, the most important place in southern India. The city was captured without difficulty, but Clive was in turn besieged by a mixed force of French and natives under Dupleix. Clive held out stubbornly in spite of the most desperate efforts to dislodge him, and inspired the natives with respect for his strength and skill. Dupleix was finally compelled to give up the siege and was recalled to France in disgrace. The defence of Arcot turned the tide in favour of the British, as the native princes were convinced that the officers and men of the East India Company could fight and hold their own.

There was peace for some years after the successful defence of Arcot. Clive had gone on a visit to England, and returned to India in 1756, just in time to receive the most startling news. Surajah Dowlah, the Nabob of Bengal, had attacked Calcutta and had captured one hundred and forty-six British. These he had imprisoned during a hot summer night in a room twenty feet square. No pen can picture the horrible sufferings of that night in the "Black Hole". In the



morning, only twenty-three of the prisoners, haggard and half-insane, were alive. With three thousand troops, about one thousand of whom were British, Clive at once sailed to the relief of Calcutta, and early in the next year recaptured the city. Six months later, in 1757, at Plassey he faced the army of Surajah Dowlah, his little force of three thousand two hundred British and natives being opposed to over fifty thousand. The odds were so great that the British officers advised retreat, but Clive was determined to take the risk. The result was a decisive victory, the army of the Nabob flying in confusion from the field. The battle of Plassey gave the British control of the rich and fertile province of Bengal, and enormously extended their power and influence. While Clive was fighting in Bengal, the French tried once more to regain a foothold in India, but their dreams of dominion were brought to an end by the defeat of their forces at the battle of Wandewash and the capture of Pondicherry in 1761.



THE FIRST BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN INDIA

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**226. The war in Europe.**—In the same year that Quebec was captured, two splendid victories in Europe, the one on the land, the other on the sea, had wiped out the disgraces of the last few years. In 1759 the French determined to strike a double blow at Britain by invading the country and by conquering Hanover. For this purpose eighteen thousand men were gathered at Brest, ready to embark under the escort of the French fleet, and an army of fifty thousand

men was marched against Hanover. This latter force was met at Minden, in Prussia, by a combined British and Hanoverian army of forty thousand men, and completely routed. The project to invade Britain was also a failure. Admiral Hawke, who had been for some time watching the French fleet, but had allowed them to escape him, came up with them in Quiberon Bay, among the rocks and shoals off the French coast. Nothing daunted, he determined to attack. "Where there is passage for the enemy, there is passage for me; where a Frenchman can sail, an Englishman can follow; their pilot shall be our pilot; if they go to pieces on the shoals, they will serve as beacons for us; their perils shall be our perils." Two British vessels were wrecked, but the French fleet was ruined.

"The Frenchmen turned like a covey down the wind

When Hawke came swooping from the West;

One he sank with all hands, one he caught and pinned,

And the shallows and the storm took the rest.

The guns that should have conquered us they rusted on the shore,

The men that would have mastered us they drummed and marched  
no more,

For England was England, and a mighty brood she bore

When Hawke came swooping from the West."

George II died at the height of Britain's prosperity, when the news of victories was so constant that Horace Walpole said, "We must ask every morning what new victory has been won, for fear we may miss hearing of one." His eldest son having died before him, the throne descended to his grandson, who reigned as George III.

**227. The English novel of home life.**—The modern English novel may be said to have had its beginning in the reign of George I. Story-tellers now began to paint all human life, to describe everyday places and the thoughts and feelings of everyday people. Before this, writers had seemed to feel that no story could be interesting unless its scene was laid in "a country a long way off," or its characters went through a series of the most amazing adventures. The first great English novelist is Samuel Richardson, a printer of London, who wrote a series of letters which he

connected so as to form a continuous story and published under the title of "Pamela." Richardson was followed by Henry Fielding and Lawrence Sterne, both of whom wrote novels that are still read to-day. Some of these novels are very long, and the story "moves" so slowly that our age finds them tedious, while, according to the present taste, others are vulgar in their incidents and coarse in their conversation. Nevertheless, it was a great gain to find that the thoughts and actions of people who were neither rich nor famous were yet full of interest.

**228. A new calendar, 1752.**—One peculiar fact about this reign is that it was really eleven days shorter than the dates of its beginning and end would seem to show. In reckoning time, the year had been made too long; that is, the almanac year was really somewhat longer than the sun's year. In the course of centuries, that difference had amounted to about eleven days, and now England made the correction, and the day that would have been September 3rd, 1752, was called September 14th. This change had been made as early as 1582 by Pope Gregory XIII, but up to this time had not been adopted in England. At first, there was great opposition, for many people felt that in some mysterious way they had been cheated out of those eleven days. Until this time, the year had begun on March 25th, when the sun first came north of the equator, but after this the years were counted from January 1st.

### SUMMARY

By the efforts of the Wesleys and Whitfield, Methodism caused a great religious awakening in England. The influence of Sir Robert Walpole kept the land at peace for many years, but after his removal from office George II engaged in the War of the Austrian Succession to uphold the claims of Maria Theresa and to check France. During this war Charles Edward made an attempt to regain the British throne. His defeat at Culloden Moor ended the efforts of the Stuarts to win the crown of Britain. To check the growing power of France, Britain engaged in the Seven Years' War. The result in America was the complete triumph of British arms. The French, allied with native princes, attempted to force the East India Company from India. By the military genius of Clive, the company's rights were maintained, and India fell under British rule. In the literary world, the novel of

home life first appeared. In 1752 Great Britain adopted the Gregorian calendar, and henceforth the years began on the first of January.

### 3. GEORGE III. 1760-1820

229. **George determines to rule.**—For half a century, the power of the ministers, and particularly of those of the Whig party, had been constantly increasing. When George III came to the throne, he had one very distinct idea in his mind, and that was that the king, and not his ministers, should rule the land. He was, however, a good, kind-hearted man, sincerely anxious to do what was best for the country. He was obstinate, but his obstinacy was not exactly wilfulness; it was rather an inability to see that there was any other way than the one he had chosen.



GEORGE III

#### 230. **The treaty of Paris.**—

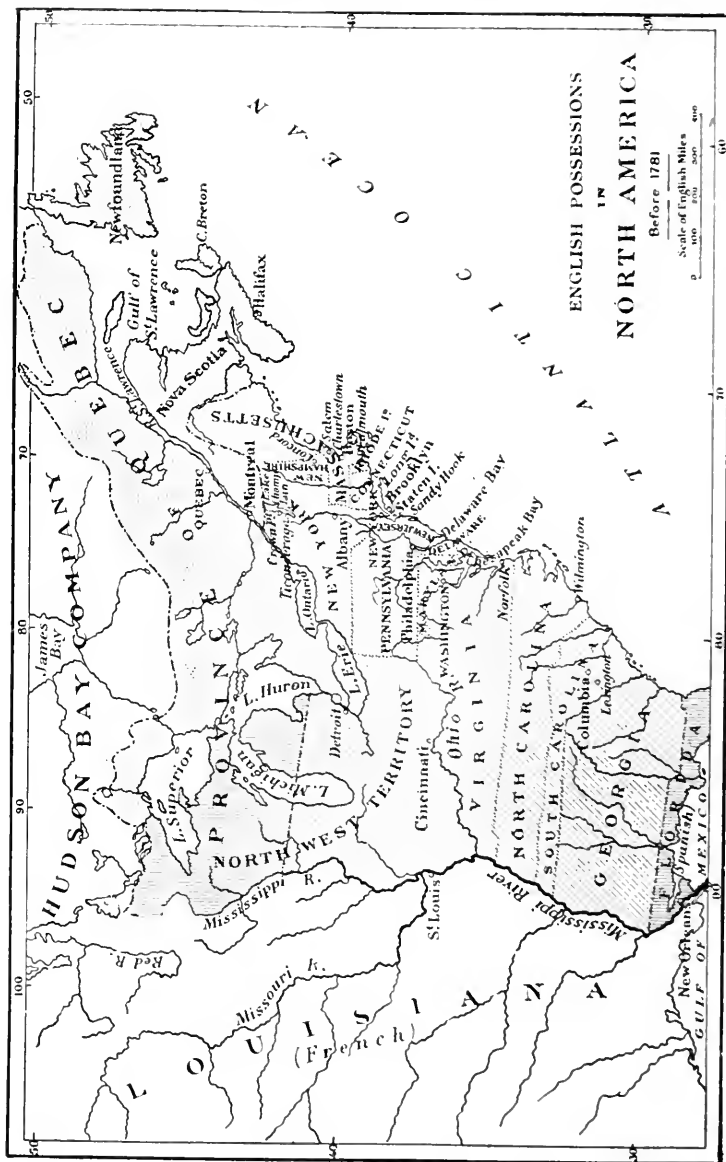
George was determined to drive Pitt from power, in order to put in his place a man who would be a mere mouthpiece of the court. The Earl of Bute was accordingly taken into the Cabinet, and he at once headed a strong peace party, the members of which began to clamour for the close of the war. But Pitt had information that Spain had entered into a secret treaty with France against Great Britain, and he proposed to strike a blow at once by seizing the Spanish treasure ships. The peace party would not listen to the proposal, and Pitt was compelled to resign. "Pitt disgraced is worth two victories to us," wrote a French diplomat. Three weeks later Spain declared war, but suffered several severe defeats. Bute, however, who had now become premier, was eager to end the war, and peace was finally concluded at Paris in 1763.

By the terms of the treaty Great Britain gained Canada, including all the territory west of the Mississippi River, Florida, and a number of the West India Islands, while in India the French abandoned all claims to military settlements, but were allowed to resume the factories they had held before the war. The close of the Seven Years' War is a turning-point in the national history of Great Britain, marking as it does the beginning of the era of colonial expansion.

**231. Freedom of elections and of the press.**—During the troubled period that followed the treaty of Paris, a number of important reforms were brought about mainly through the efforts of John Wilkes, a member of Parliament, who was bitterly opposed to the ministry. He had criticised the king's Speech from the Throne in his newspaper, *The North Briton*, and was arrested, along with forty-nine others, on a general warrant, which, without mentioning any names, ordered that all those connected with the publication should be seized. When the case came to trial, Wilkes was released on the grounds that, as he was a member of Parliament, he was free from arrest, and general warrants, such as the one on which he had been arrested, were declared to be illegal. In the meantime, another charge was brought against him, on which he was found guilty and outlawed. After four years spent in France, he returned to England, and was



NORTH AMERICA BEFORE 1763



again elected to Parliament. The Tory majority in the House of Commons expelled him, and, on his being again elected, his seat was given to his opponent who had polled but a few votes. Wilkes became a popular hero; again and again he was elected. At last, in 1774, he was allowed to take his seat; by his determination, Wilkes had vindicated the right of every constituency to return, without any interference whatever, the member of its choice.

In the meantime, while an alderman of London, Wilkes championed the cause of certain printers who had been arrested for publishing the debates that took place in the House of Commons. This privilege had always been denied, but Wilkes supported the offending printers so vigorously that the House, not caring to enter into another contest with him, did not insist on punishing them. Since that time newspapers have been allowed without question to publish such reports.

**232. The American Revolution.**—The first difficulty of George's reign was with the British colonies in North America, south of Canada. These colonies, now thirteen in number, had increased rapidly in wealth and in population; in fact, at this time their population was about one half as great as that of England. Great Britain, like other European countries, looked upon a colony, not as part of herself, but simply as a community forming a convenient market for the products and manufactures of the parent state. The American colonies enjoyed a large measure of freedom, but their trade was hampered by many vexatious regulations. For instance, they were obliged to sell their produce in Great Britain and to buy from her all their imports; they were not allowed to send a ship to the West Indies or even to Ireland, nor might they send wool from one colony to another. These laws, however, were not strictly enforced, and a smuggling trade with the West Indies and with the Spanish colonies was carried on almost openly.

At the end of the Seven Years' War, Great Britain found herself loaded with a huge debt of £140,000,000. A great deal of this enormous sum had been spent on behalf of

America, and British statesmen now began to feel that the American colonies should relieve the mother country of a portion of the expense of government. It is true that the colonies had themselves suffered severely during the war; they had raised twenty thousand troops and had incurred large debts in defending their own borders. It was still necessary, however, to maintain an army of at least ten thousand men in America, and Lord George Grenville, who succeeded Lord Bute as prime minister in 1763, made up his mind that the colonies should bear the cost of these troops. Accordingly, in 1764, he gave notice in the House of Commons that it was "just and necessary" that a tax be laid on the colonies. The following year saw the passage of the "Stamp Act," which required a stamp issued by the British government to be placed on all legal documents issued within the colonies.

In the colonies a storm of opposition met the enforcement of the Stamp Act. Boxes of stamps sent from England were seized and destroyed; the colonial Legislatures even went so far as to issue proclamations authorizing the people to refuse to obey the Act. The colonists held that the British government had no right to impose a tax on them, as they had no representatives in the British Parliament, and taxation without representation was not in accordance with the law of England. Finally, the government, in 1766, repealed the Act, although, along with the repeal, went a declaration that Great Britain had a right to tax the colonies.

In the very next year the British government again imposed a tax on the colonies, in the shape of a duty, to be collected at American ports, on glass, paints, paper, and tea, the money so raised to be used to pay the salaries of judges and government officials. At the same time it was resolved to enforce vigorously the laws regarding colonial trade and to put a stop to the smuggling with the Spanish colonies and the West Indies. The new taxes aroused even more bitter opposition than that against the Stamp Act. The British government was compelled to suspend the charter of the colony of New York, and even to



send two regiments to preserve order in Boston. In 1770 an unfortunate clash in Boston between the soldiers and the populace, known as the "Boston Massacre," brought the colonists to the verge of rebellion. It is probable that war would have broken out had not Lord North, just at this time, carried through Parliament an Act repealing all the taxes except that on tea, this particular tax being retained merely to assert the right of taxation. This made peace for a time, but the colonists were determined not to submit to taxation of any kind. Although tea was sold cheaper than that which was smuggled from Holland, the colonists refused to buy it. In Charleston it was stored in damp cellars and soon spoiled. In Boston some men disguised themselves as Indians and dropped it overboard. This high-handed action gave George, who had strongly supported his ministers in the imposition of the taxes, the very opportunity for which he had been looking. Very stringent laws were passed interfering with the liberty of the people, and General Gage was appointed governor of Massachusetts to see that they were carried out. So far there had not been much union among the colonies, but at this they were all thoroughly aroused, as they felt that the mother country was not only treating them with injustice, but was intentionally trying to work them injury.



LORD NORTH

The course taken by the king met with vigorous opposition, not only in America but in Britain as well. The merchants of London and Bristol urged the government to yield to the wishes of the colonists, and William Pitt, who had now become Earl of Chatham, rose in the House of Lords and

pleaded for the withdrawal of the troops and for the repeal of the hostile Acts of Parliament; this alone, he said, could save the colonies to England. The question was put whether the British troops should be removed from the colonies. Even the king's younger brother voted for the removal; but a large majority, "the king's friends," were in

favour of keeping them where they were. This was in January, 1775, and in April the war broke out.

The first encounter took place at Lexington, near Boston, where a party of regular soldiers, sent to seize some military stores, were encountered by a band of militiamen hastily summoned by news of the expedition. This was the call to arms, and in a short time an army of twenty thousand colonists had gathered around Boston. In the same



GEORGE WASHINGTON

year the battle of Bunker Hill showed the king that the colonists, although defeated in the fight, were in earnest in their intention to resist his measures even by force of arms. Shortly afterwards the various colonies united their forces and appointed George Washington of Virginia to the position of commander-in-chief.

In the next year the colonists determined to separate from Great Britain. A congress, composed of delegates from the thirteen colonies, was held at Philadelphia, and on July 4th, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was adopted. This completed the separation of the colonies from the motherland, and committed them to a bitter contest.

The first step in the war was an invasion of Canada, but this proved a complete failure. In the next year the British arms suffered a severe reverse in the surrender of General Burgoyne at Saratoga. This was the

turning-point of the struggle, although in the next year, at Valley Forge, the army of the colonists had to endure the most terrible sufferings. France then recognized the cause of the colonists and sent a force to their assistance, while the French navy rendered great service in preventing the landing of troops and supplies for the British. The leading men in Britain began to realize the hopeless nature of the struggle against the desperate determination of the colonists, supported as they now were by France, and with the moral support of Spain and Holland. But the king was still obstinate and determined not to yield; even Lord North urged concessions, but in vain. Finally, in 1781, Lord Cornwallis was hemmed in at Yorktown between the army of Washington and the French fleet, and was compelled to surrender. This defeat convinced even the king, and terms of peace were arranged. The second treaty of Paris, in 1783, closed the war by recognizing the independence of the colonies.

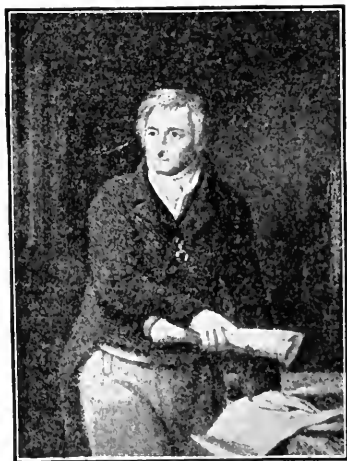
While the war was being carried on in America, Great Britain was engaged in a conflict with France and Spain in other parts of the world. Gibraltar was besieged for three years by the combined fleets of these two countries, but without success. In 1782 Admiral Rodney won a magnificent victory, known as the "Battle of the Saints," over the French fleet in the West Indies. The second treaty of Paris put an end also to the war with France and Spain.

**233. The Gordon Riots.**—Not only, at this time, were there difficulties abroad, but there was also trouble at home. In 1778 Parliament had passed an Act abolishing some of the most oppressive statutes against the Roman Catholics. There was a great deal of unreasoning opposition to this measure, and in 1780 Lord George Gordon, a fanatical Scotsman, accompanied by a mob of sixty thousand men, marched to Westminster to present to Parliament a petition for the repeal of the Act. A terrible riot followed, lasting six days, during which many Roman Catholic churches were pulled down, the prisons burned, and the houses of judges and magistrates destroyed. Before the riot was quelled by the aid of the military, nearly five hundred persons had been killed or wounded. Lord George Gordon was arrested and tried, but was acquit-

ted on the ground that he had no evil intentions, and was not responsible for the actions of his followers.

**231. A free Parliament for Ireland.**—Ireland, too, was causing a great deal of anxiety to the British government. There was in Ireland a Parliament, but it scarcely deserved the name, as only those who were Protestants had the right to vote at the election of members, and no Act passed by it could become law except with the consent of the British government. In addition, Great Britain had control over commerce and navigation, and regulated Irish trade as jealously as it had tried to regulate that of the American colonies. As a result, the Irish people as a whole were bitterly dissatisfied with their condition.

During the war with France and Spain, the coasts of Ireland were ravaged by privateers and the country itself was threatened with invasion. To defend their homes the



HENRY GRATTAN

Protestants took up arms and soon over forty thousand volunteers were enrolled. The Roman Catholics at first did not take an active part in the movement, as they were not allowed to bear arms, but they too joined at last. These volunteers, while loyal to the crown, adopted a distinctly national policy; their influence soon made itself felt. In 1780 the British government removed many of the restrictions on Irish trade, permitted the export of wool from Ireland, and threw open to the Irish merchants the trade with the colonies. But

this did not satisfy the volunteers, who by this time numbered nearly one hundred thousand armed and disciplined men. Led by Henry Grattan, they demanded a free Parliament for Ireland. The British government felt that to oppose the

Irish at this juncture might result in a civil war, and accordingly, in 1782, the ancient laws giving the British government control over the Irish Parliament were repealed. Ireland thus became almost an independent state. As, however, Roman Catholics could not become members of the Parliament, and the lord-lieutenant was responsible only to the crown, the measure of freedom granted was not as great as it seemed.

**235. William Pitt, the younger.**—The general dissatisfaction of the nation with the conduct of the American war, and the determination of the king not to yield to the colonists, had, in 1782, forced the resignation of Lord North. Several ministers succeeded him, but no one man seemed to be strong enough to carry on the government, until at last the king called upon William Pitt, the second son of the "Great Commoner." Pitt had entered Parliament in 1780, and was but twenty-four years of age when he became prime minister. The king chose him and retained him in office, not so much because he liked Pitt as because he disliked Pitt's opponents. The young prime minister soon had a large majority to support him, and at once entered upon a policy of reform and economy,



WILLIAM PITT

which resulted in great prosperity to England. He lowered both the export and the import duties on many articles, and in this way put a stop to much of the smuggling, thereby increasing the revenue of the country. He did not succeed in bringing about free trade with Ireland, owing to the opposition of the Irish Parliament, but he was successful in improving trade relations with France. He tried to abolish slavery, but in this was unsuccessful, as he was also in his attempt to reform abuses in parliamentary representation; the country was not yet ready for either of these two great

reforms. During the years that Pitt was in power, Great Britain was prosperous and happy, and until the outbreak of the French war, a very bright future seemed to be in store for the country.

**236. British rule in India.**—India also, during this time, received much attention from the British government. The powers of administration were so divided between the East India Company and the native princes that a strong and just rule was impossible. The servants of the company had every opportunity to gather enormous wealth by plundering and oppressing the people, and also by private trading. Clive, who returned to India in 1765, tried to put a stop to these practices. He succeeded in inducing Lord North to pass a Regulating Act which provided for the appointment by the crown of a governor-general and a Council, and the supervision by the home government of all the acts of the company.

The first governor-general appointed was Warren Hastings, at that time the head of the company's affairs in



WARREN HASTINGS

Bengal. He was intrusted with the task of introducing the new plan of reform, but found great difficulty in carrying out his instructions. He was thwarted by his fellow-members of the Council, and was in constant trouble with the natives. When the news of Great Britain's losses in America reached India, Hastings had to make desperate efforts to retain the power and influence of the East India Company. The French were again active against British rule, and, through their agents, were stirring up

the native princes to revolt. Hastings was in sore need of funds to meet these difficulties, and to pay the large profits expected by the company. In the effort to uphold at any cost the rule of Great Britain, he extorted large sums

from the native rulers, and lent the company's troops for purposes of oppression. In this way, he succeeded not only in maintaining the supremacy of Great Britain, but also in extending her power in all directions in India.

The rapid extension of the empire in the far East induced Pitt to carry through Parliament the India Bill of 1784, which brought the government of India much more directly under the control of the crown. A Board of Control, consisting of five members, was appointed to supervise the actions of the directors of the East India Company, and of this board the president was a member of the British government. In the next year Hastings resigned his governorship and returned to England.

Hastings had scarcely landed when he was impeached by the House of Commons for extortion, cruelty, and misgovernment in India. Pitt, although sympathizing with the prosecution, refused to take any part in the impeachment proceedings; but Edmund Burke, Richard Brinsley Sheridan, the brilliant Irish orator, and other leading statesmen pressed the charges with untiring energy. Hastings made a magnificent defence, pleading his services in the cause of the empire and the uprightness of his intentions. The trial, which began in 1788 and in which the members of the House of Lords were the judges, lasted for seven years and resulted in the acquittal of Hastings by a unanimous vote. The immediate consequence of the trial was an awakening among the British people of a strong sympathy for the natives of India and the other subject races under the rule of Britain.

**237. Progress in industry.**—At the end of the eighteenth century a large part of the land in England consisted of moorlands and swamps, affording only a scanty pasturage. People began to cut ditches through the wet land and drain it, so that it could be ploughed, planted, and cultivated. A Yorkshire miner, named James Croft, set a good example to farmers by fencing eight acres of moorland, thought to be worthless. But Croft dug out the stones and filled up the holes with soil; he then brought marl and fertilized it, and thus turned it into excellent land. Another farmer named Robert Bakewell learned how to breed cattle and sheep so that he

could get twice as much beef or mutton from a single animal as before. By keeping only the largest and finest animals, he soon had better flocks and herds than any of his neighbours. This process of selection other farmers imitated, until Great Britain came to produce some of the finest breeds of cattle and sheep in the world.

The latter part of the eighteenth century was remarkable also for the many new machines introduced, and for the many new methods applied to manufacturing of all kinds. These inventions made a new Britain. The people were no longer dependent alone on the food raised in their own country, as they could exchange manufactured goods for food and for raw materials.

One of the greatest difficulties in manufacturing was the lack of cheap power. A clumsy kind of engine which consumed great quantities of fuel was in use early in the century, but in 1766 James Watt of Glasgow so improved these engines that in a few years they came into general use. A little later it was discovered that coal could be used to run these engines, and the problem of cheap power was made much simpler. When it was found, also, that coal, instead of charcoal, could be used in the smelting of ore, a further impulse was given to manufacturing in the iron and coal districts of the country.

A century and a half ago each thread of cotton was spun by hand, and each spindle required a spinner. In 1767, James Hargreaves invented a spinning-jenny which enabled a single worker to spin more than one hundred threads at once. Shortly afterwards, Richard Arkwright invented a frame which enabled the spinner to produce a very strong yarn, and this invention was still further improved upon by Samuel Crompton's spinning-mule, which enabled one person to manage a thousand spindles. In 1785, Edmund Cartwright invented a power-loom, and did for weaving what Arkwright had done for spinning. Arkwright had already used a water-wheel to supply the power to run his spinning-frame: Cartwright soon after began the use of a steam engine in working his power-loom.

Up to this time all porcelain and china dishes, except the



very coarsest, had been imported from other countries. Now it was discovered that the finest of potteries could be made from the clays of England. Soon after Josiah Wedgwood had established the extensive works that still bear his name, there were twenty thousand potters employed in a single shire.

At the beginning of George's reign, the roads of Britain, with few exceptions, were often impassable, but at the close, the whole kingdom was covered with a network of excellent highways. Part of the credit of building these new roads belongs to a Scotsman, named Macadam, who invented the roadway now called by his name. Formerly it had been impossible to transport coal in wagons over the roads, so it was generally carried in bags slung over the backs of mules. With good roads, and still more by the cutting of numerous canals, the price of coal dropped, so that it was possible to obtain it in any part of the kingdom at a reasonable cost. In this way, also, the great coal and iron deposits could now be brought together. The first canal had been constructed by James Brindley, who was laughed at when he began his work, but who persevered and in the end met with success.

These inventions and improvements brought many evils in their train. Many men were, at first, thrown out of employment; the people herded into the villages and towns; workmen were crowded together in ill-ventilated factories; women and children were employed not only in the factories, but also in the mines. In fact, many of the most troublesome questions with which the government had to deal early in the next century grew out of the industrial development of this period.

**238. Prison reform.**—In the early days of George III, the jails were generally in the most disgraceful state, filthy beyond description, and alive with rats and vermin. Men, women, and children were huddled together in small, damp, sunless rooms. The jailers were paid by fees, and were allowed to practise every cruelty to extort money from the unfortunate prisoners. Even when discharged, a prisoner was often dragged back to jail because he could not pay the

fees demanded by the jailer for board and lodging. A change, however, was brought about, chiefly through the unselfish efforts of John Howard, who devoted himself to improving the condition of the jails and the prisoners. He visited every jail in England and saw for himself the evils that existed. He so roused the people that the government was forced to make improvements. Jailers were paid regular salaries; prisons were inspected and kept clean, and wholesome food was provided for the prisoners.

**239. The struggle with Napoleon.**—All the plans of Pitt for a peaceful expansion of his country were shattered by the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789. Driven to desperation by the oppression of the king and the nobles, the people of France rose in rebellion against the government, beheaded the king and queen, and established a republic. A little later followed the Reign of Terror, during which blood flowed like water. For the most part, those who suffered were of noble blood, but no one could feel safe. If the slightest suspicion of sympathy for the upper classes fell upon any man or woman, the guillotine brought a speedy death.

At first there was in Great Britain enthusiastic sympathy with the French Revolution. The British people felt that they had obliged their sovereigns to rule justly and for the good of the country, and this is what they thought the French were trying to do. But soon they saw that this was not a struggle for justice, but a wild, mad slaughter. They saw that the watchwords of the revolutionists, "Liberty, equality, fraternity," meant: liberty,—that they might do as they pleased; equality,—that every one should be dragged down to their own level; fraternity,—that they and their partisans should oppose all others. France made the mistake of believing that the masses of the British people sympathized with her, and that the king and the nobles were tyrannizing over them. Accordingly, one month after the execution of their king, while the Reign of Terror was at its height, the French declared war against Great Britain.

The leading powers of Europe joined to restore the French monarchy, and France might easily have been defeated had

the allies been united and had they been skilfully led. Their armies, however, were in charge of incompetent generals; the soldiers were brave, but they were badly led. The result was that in 1795, Holland, Prussia, and Spain made peace with France, leaving Britain and Austria, with the help of Italy, to continue the war.

Had it not been for the successes of the navy, the British would, up to this time, have met only with defeat. Late in 1793, a French fleet at Toulon surrendered to the combined fleets of Britain and Spain, and a garrison from the fleets took possession of the city. They were, however, soon driven out by the revolutionists, a success on the part of the French due largely to the military genius of a young Corsican officer of artillery named Napoleon Bonaparte. In the next year, Lord Howe defeated the French fleet off the island of Ushant in a battle known as "The Glorious First of June." In this engagement the French lost seven ships and eight thousand men.

In the meantime, the young Corsican officer of artillery had not been idle. For his success at Toulon, he had been raised to the rank of general, and, after holding various important commands, was made general-in-chief of the French army in Italy. In a short time, by the rapidity of his marches and the daring of his movements, he had both Austria and Italy at his mercy. In October, 1797, a peace was concluded between France and Austria, which left Italy in the power of France, and Great Britain without an ally on the continent of Europe.

With Spain and Holland as allies, France was in a position to threaten the sea-power of Britain, whose navy in men,



NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

ships, and guns, was no match for her three powerful enemies. The British, however, gave the allied navies no time to unite. In 1797, Admiral Sir John Jervis attacked the Spanish off Cape St. Vincent, and won a triumphant victory. But the power of the British navy was for a time crippled by two serious mutinies which broke out among the sailors, the first at Spithead, the second at the Nore. The causes of complaint were brutal treatment of the men by the officers, poor pay, and insufficient food. At one time the whole fleet of Admiral Duncan, who was watching the Dutch, joined the mutineers. With a single ship, the brave old Scotsman blockaded the Dutch fleet for three days, deceiving them by constantly running up signals, as though he were sending messages to his other ships. The mutiny was put down by liberal concessions on the part of the government, and by the hanging of the more outspoken of the leaders. As soon as all his ships had returned to him, Duncan engaged the Dutch fleet off Camperdown.

“I’ve taken the depth of a fathom!” he cried,  
“And I’ll sink with a right good-will;  
For I know when we’re all of us under the tide  
My flag will be fluttering still.”

The Dutch fought bravely, but they were in the end defeated, with the loss of eleven ships.

While the British fleet was engaged in winning victories on the sea, a daring scheme had occurred to Napoleon Bonaparte, who was now high in the councils of the French republic. He proposed that he should lead an army into Egypt, conquer that country, and by extending his conquests eastwards, strike a blow at British power in India. His plan was accepted, and, in 1798, with an army of thirty-six thousand men, he set out for Egypt, escaping by the merest chance an encounter with Admiral Nelson, who, in command of a strong British fleet, was watching his every movement. He succeeded in landing in Egypt, and in the hotly contested Battle of the Pyramids, gained control of the country.

Napoleon had left his fleet anchored in Aboukir Bay, and here it was discovered by Nelson. In the battle that fol-

lowed, the British admiral gained an overwhelming victory. Thirteen French ships were either taken or sunk; only four ships escaped, and three of these were soon after captured. Napoleon was now cut off from communication with France, but, nothing daunted, he pushed eastwards into Syria, and laid siege to Acre, defended by Sir Sydney Smith and a garrison of British and Turks. Acre held out bravely, and Napoleon was compelled to retreat to Egypt. Soon after, he returned to France, and his army was defeated at Aboukir by Sir Ralph Abercromby. Later the whole French army of thirteen thousand men surrendered to the British.

A coalition, formed in 1798 between Great Britain, Russia, and Austria had not met with success. Both the Russians and the Austrians had suffered so many reverses that the former was persuaded to abandon the alliance, while the latter made peace with France at Luneville in 1801. Once more Britain stood alone.

To make matters worse for Britain, in this same year, Pitt, thwarted by the king in his plans for the government of Ireland, resigned his office, and was succeeded by Mr. Addington. Napoleon's plans were soon apparent. By a league of the northern

powers, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, he hoped to ruin Great Britain by shutting out her vessels from these countries, and, by joining the navies of these three countries with those of France and Spain, to drive her from the seas. The agreement called the "Armed Neutrality" was made, and Napoleon instantly called upon the Danes to place their fleet at his disposal. Great Britain had



LORD NELSON

secret information of this plan, and Sir Hyde Parker was sent, in 1801, with Nelson as second in command, to demand the withdrawal of the Danes from the league. This demand was refused, and Parker immediately sent Nelson to enforce the request by the bombardment of Copenhagen. The battle was a desperate one, but the Danes were at last compelled to yield, after nearly all their fleet had been destroyed. Denmark was thus forced to conclude an armistice, which gave the British fleet entrance to the Baltic. A little later, the death of the Czar of Russia broke up the confederation.

This blow, together with the surrender of the French army in Egypt, which took place about this time, made Napoleon



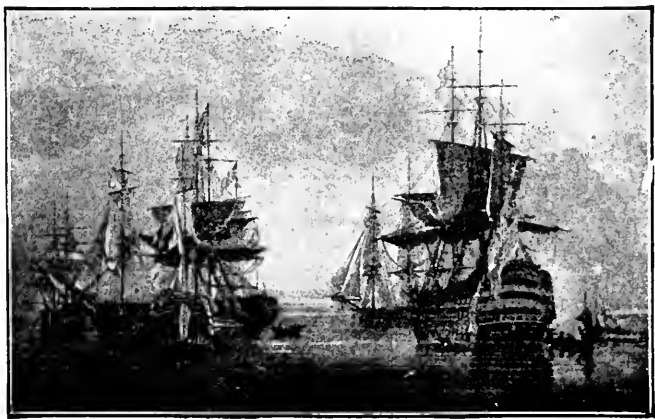
MEDAL STRUCK BY NAPOLEON TO COMMEMORATE HIS  
PROPOSED INVASION OF ENGLAND

willing to conclude a peace. The treaty was signed at Amiens in 1802. Britain retained Ceylon, which had been captured during the war, and agreed to surrender Malta, while France on her part agreed to evacuate Egypt.

Napoleon, however, had agreed to the treaty of Amiens only that he might have time to build a new navy and to form his plans to strike a crushing blow at Great Britain. He had made himself emperor of the French, and now felt that he was in a position to carry out his cherished scheme of the invasion of England. For this purpose he mustered one hundred and thirty thousand men at Boulogne. "Let us be masters of the Channel for six hours," he said, "and

we are masters of the world." The danger to Great Britain was very grave, but Napoleon had not reckoned with the people with whom he had to deal. Addington was forced to resign, and Pitt was again called to the helm. He at once took active measures to guard against the proposed invasion, and to enlist the aid of the European powers.

That the French did not set foot on British soil was due largely to the untiring vigilance of Admiral Lord Nelson. During a period of twenty months he was stationed off Toulon, and during that time he left his ship only three times, and for less than an hour on each occasion. But one stormy night, the French managed to escape, and joining the Span-



SOME OF NELSON'S SHIPS

ish fleet, made for the West Indies. This, however, was only a ruse, and as soon as Nelson had been lured into following them, the French and Spanish fleet returned to home waters. But Nelson, not finding them in the West Indies, suspected their design, and hurried back to England, nearly heart-broken at the way in which he had been tricked. In the meantime, the French and Spaniards had arrived at home, had fought a losing battle with a British fleet under Sir Robert Calder, and taken refuge in the harbour of Cadiz.

On October the 21st, 1805, the French and Spanish

fleets, numbering thirty-three ships, ventured out of the harbour, and were attacked by Nelson, who had again resumed command, with twenty-seven ships of the line. In less than five hours, the allied fleets were hopelessly shattered off Cape Trafalgar. Just as the fight began Nelson hung out his famous signal, "England expects every man to do his duty." Early in the fight he was struck by a musket ball, and died in the moment of victory, murmuring, "Thank God, I have done my duty."

"Wherever brave deeds are treasured and told,  
In the tales of the deeds of yore,  
Like jewels of price in a chain of gold  
Are the name and the fame he bore.  
Wherever the track of our English ships  
Lies white on the ocean foam,  
His name is sweet to our English lips,  
As the names of the flowers at home."

Twenty-four of the enemy's ships surrendered or were destroyed, and twenty thousand prisoners were taken. Napoleon's last hope of supremacy was gone. He might easily replace the ships, the men, and the guns; he could never hope to inspire his seamen with any confidence of success. "England has saved herself by her courage," said Pitt; "she will save Europe by her example."

Even before Trafalgar, Pitt had succeeded in forming another coalition of the European powers against Napoleon. But the French emperor acted with his usual promptness, and, marching with the Boulogne army against the Austrians, crushed their hopes in the battle of Austerlitz. This disaster to his ally so preyed upon Pitt that on January 23rd, 1806, he died, worn out in the service of his country. On his death he was succeeded as foreign secretary by Charles James Fox, but Fox survived his great rival only eight months.

The battle of Jena now placed Prussia under the control of Napoleon, who seized the opportunity to revive his plan for the total ruin of British commerce. From Berlin, decrees were issued declaring a blockade of Britain. All commerce with her was forbidden, and British manufac



tures, or products from British colonies, were to be confiscated wherever found. The next year, Napoleon so humbled Russia that by the Milan Decrees this "Continental System," as it was called, was made to apply to the whole continent. Britain retaliated by Orders-in-Council, threatening to seize the ships of any nation that traded with France or her allies. As Britain had control of the sea, she was able to injure France more than France injured her. The Berlin and Milan Decrees really helped to ruin Napoleon, because they made goods so dear in Europe that his allies rose against him.



CHARLES JAMES FOX

Now that Britain had proved her superiority on the seas, George Canning, who had succeeded Fox as foreign secretary, determined that the British army should take part in the struggle. Portugal, in defiance of the Berlin Decrees, had refused to close her ports to Great Britain. Napoleon, in revenge, proposed to Spain that the two countries should divide the territory of the Portuguese, and in furtherance of this plan, a French army occupied Lisbon. But this was only the first step in Napoleon's schemes. Soon after, Spain itself was overrun, the Spanish king was compelled to abdicate, and Joseph Bonaparte was placed on the throne. This high-handed act so angered the Spaniards that they rose in rebellion against the usurper.

Canning felt that the moment had come to strike, and, in 1808, two expeditions were sent to Portugal, the one under Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had already distinguished himself in India, and the other under Sir John Moore. The former was successful, and the French were driven out of

Portugal, but for some reason or other, Wellesley was recalled to England. In the meantime, Sir John Moore had



SIR JOHN MOORE

pushed into Spain in a daring attempt to unite with a Spanish army, and destroy the French line of communication. The Spaniards were defeated, and Moore was compelled to retreat to the coast. This he did in a masterly manner, followed by a French army under Marshal Soult. At Corunna he turned and defeated Soult, but was himself killed in the battle. The army embarked and reached England in safety. This severe check did not dismay Canning, and another

army was at once sent to Portugal under Wellesley, who succeeded in uniting with the Spanish army, but, being met by an overwhelming French force, was forced to give way. In the same year, a British expedition against Antwerp ended in disaster, and this reverse, coupled with the success of Napoleon in another war with Austria, forced Canning to resign. He was succeeded by the Marquis of Wellesley, a brother of Sir Arthur. The war was continued with greater vigour than ever.

For the next four years the interest centres mainly in Wellesley and the struggle in the Spanish peninsula. At first his army was too weak for pitched battles; he could only wear out the French by skilful movements. He would sometimes retreat for days, and then, by a doubling movement, attack the enemy in an exposed quarter. On one occasion he lured a French army nearly to Lisbon, where, in the retreat that followed, twenty-five thousand died of starvation and disease. It was not until 1811, after remaining for many months behind the triple fortifications of Torres Vedras, that he felt himself

strong enough to undertake a forward movement. Then he began the march that ended in the expulsion of the French from Spanish territory.

Wellesley now entered upon a series of triumphant victories. In 1812 Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos were stormed, and a little later the terrible battle of Salamanca was won. Then came the battle of Vittoria and the crossing of the Pyrenees, and, finally, on April 10th, 1814, the decisive battle of Toulouse, which ended in the total defeat of the French forces. In all these battles and sieges, Wellesley had been ably assisted by the Spanish and Portuguese forces, more, however, as guerillas than as disciplined soldiers. For his services in the Peninsular War, Wellesley was created Duke of Wellington and rewarded with a grant of four hundred thousand pounds.



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON

In the meantime, Napoleon, who had left to his marshals the conduct of the war in the Peninsula, had invaded Russia with an army of over half a million men. The expedition proved a disastrous failure; all but a few thousands of his immense army perished miserably. The emperor was now at the mercy of his enemies. Wellington had, by this time, crossed the Pyrenees, and was marching northwards. The Russians and Prussians had crossed the Rhine and were advancing on Paris. Napoleon resisted desperately, but was forced to surrender. He was sent to Elba, a small island in the Mediterranean not far from the coast of France, and a younger brother of Louis XVI was placed on the French throne.

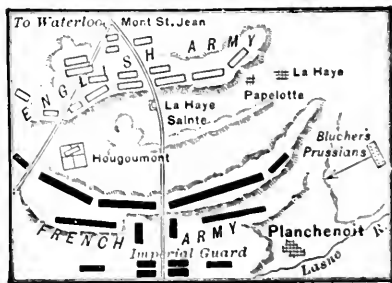
In a very short time Napoleon escaped from Elba and made his way towards Paris. His old soldiers flocked around him with the greatest enthusiasm and he soon had an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men. But



THE PENINSULAR WAR

the allies were now thoroughly aroused by the danger that threatened them. In a short time they had a million soldiers ready to pour over the French frontier and crush all opposition. Napoleon, however, did not mean to allow them to unite their forces.

The British and Prussians had armies in Belgium under Wellington and Blücher. Napoleon suddenly crossed the French frontier and attacked Blücher at Ligny, driving him back twenty miles. At the same time Wellington, at the head of a British and Belgian army, was attacked by Marshal Ney at Quatre Bras. Wellington was compelled to retreat to the village of Waterloo, nine miles from Brussels, where he took up his stand. There on Sunday, June 18th, 1815, he was attacked by Napoleon. Wellington had drawn up his army in squares along a highway, the approach being defended by two strong posts on the right and left of his lines. The two armies were of nearly the same size, seventy thousand men each, but the French had veteran troops and more guns. All day the French beat upon the British squares, which stubbornly held their ground. To-



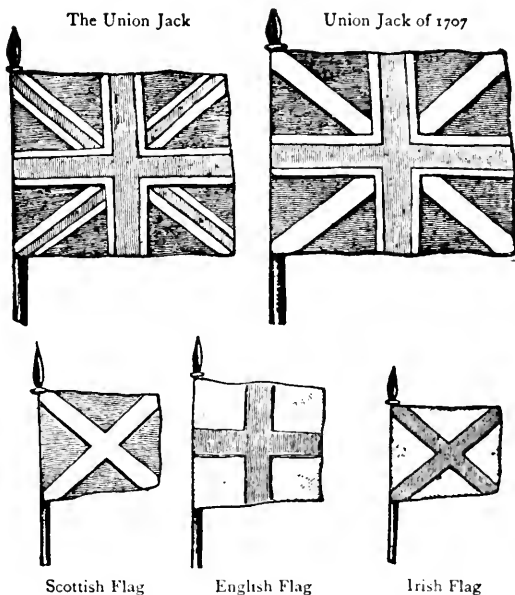
THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO

wards night, Blücher's Prussian army arrived on the field and struck the French flank. The French fire weakened, and the whole British army moved forwards and drove the French in utter rout from the field. Each army lost about twenty-five thousand men. It was Napoleon's last battle. He gave himself up, and was exiled to the distant island of St. Helena, where he died in 1821. The peace of Vienna, which brought the war to a close, gave Malta, the Mauritius Islands, and the Cape of Good Hope to Great Britain.

**240. The War of 1812-1814.**—During the last ten years of his reign, George III was insane and blind, and his son ruled, as regent, in his place. Just after the trouble came upon him, war broke out with the United States. The blockade caused by the Berlin Decrees and the British Orders-in-Council, had shut out the United States ships from the European trade, and as this had been very profitable, a great deal of resentment was aroused. In addition, Great Britain had exercised a shadowy right to seize and search vessels of any other nation for deserters from her own navy. The United States claimed that many citizens of that country had been forcibly taken from their own vessels, and compelled to serve in the British navy. Seizing the opportunity when the resources of Great Britain were taxed to the utmost in the conflict with Napoleon, the United States declared war, and at once invaded Canada. The invasion of Canada proved a failure; in three successive campaigns the American troops were signally defeated. British troops also burned Washington, but were repulsed at New Orleans. On the sea for a time the navy of Britain was worsted, but towards the end of the war, the commerce of the United States was practically ruined, and most of her ports were in a state of blockade. In 1814 the surrender of Napoleon gave Great Britain a chance to turn her energies to America, and before the end of the year peace was signed at Ghent. The treaty contained no reference to any of the alleged causes of the conflict.

**241. The union of Great Britain and Ireland.**—At the beginning of the nineteenth century, a great change in the government of Ireland was brought about by Pitt. The Act

of 1782, granting a free Parliament, made very little improvement in the condition of the country. Some relief was afforded by the Catholic Relief Act, passed in 1793, which allowed Roman Catholics to act as magistrates and jurors and to vote for members of Parliament, but the plotting soon broke out again. A society known as the "United Irishmen" was formed by Hamilton Rowan and Wolf Tone, with the object of separating Ireland from Great Britain.



THE FLAG OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND

Arrangements were made with France to send a strong army to assist in setting up a republic in Ireland. On one occasion a French force actually reached the coast, but the ships were scattered by a storm, and the rising was easily crushed. Later, in 1798, a French force landed, and a rebellion took place, which was not quelled

without frightful cruelties committed by both sides. It was evident that something must be done to restore peace and prosperity to the country.

Pitt now proposed to abolish the Irish Parliament, and to unite Ireland with Great Britain, the Irish having representation at Westminster in the same way that the English and the Scots had. In order to carry out this plan, he was forced to resort to bribery and other questionable means

before the Irish Parliament would give its consent to the union. Finally, in spite of the opposition of Grattan, the Act of Union was passed in 1800 and went into force on January 1st, 1801. By its terms one hundred commoners and thirty-two peers were given seats in the British Parliament. There was to be absolute free trade between the two countries, and the flag of St. Patrick was to be added to the Union Jack. The united countries were henceforth to be known as Great Britain and Ireland. Pitt had promised, as soon as the union was carried out, to repeal the penal laws against the Roman Catholics; but this promise, owing to the refusal of the king to agree, he was unable to carry out. Indeed, it was the opposition of the king to this act of justice that led to Pitt's resignation of the premiership in 1801.

**242. Social unrest.**—Great Britain had been at war almost continually from 1775 to 1815, and now that the country was at peace, the suffering caused by the wars began to receive attention. The national debt was more than six times as great as at the beginning of the wars, the interest alone amounting to one hundred and sixty million dollars a year. To raise this amount and to meet the expenses of government, taxes were very heavy. Nearly everything that people used in daily life was taxed. Hundreds of men were ruined by the heavy taxes, or by the effect of the wars on their business. Banks and factories were closed, and thousands of people were out of work.

In 1815 a law was passed by which no grain was allowed to be brought into England until the price reached ten shillings a bushel. The next year there was a bad harvest, the price of grain rose, many people could not get food, and riots broke out all over the country, accompanied by destruction of property and the stoppage of business.

Another cause of distress was the rapid introduction of machinery, which threw many thousands of men out of employment. The people thought that the new machines were the reason for all the trouble. Night attacks were made upon the factories, and many machines were destroyed. This led

to riots, conflicts with the officers of the law, and the stoppage of useful work.

The criminal laws were still enforced in the old harsh way. They were more brutal than those of any civilized country in Europe; the statutes laid down more than two hundred offences for which the penalty was hanging. Men and women were tied behind carts and publicly whipped through the streets. Because the penalties were so severe, juries often refused to make convictions, and crime went unpunished. The constables were frequently ready to let criminals off for a bribe, and in many cases they actually encouraged criminals in order to secure the rewards that the government paid for catching them.

Parliament was still controlled by the nobility and the land-owners; the working classes had no representatives, and began to demand reform. They thought that many of their troubles could be cured if they were allowed to have some share in the government.

**243. Literature.**—In a reign so long as that of George III, there was opportunity for changes in literature as well as in manufacturing. Samuel Johnson was the man who exerted most influence over the literary world of his day. He wrote biography, criticism, essays, and a story called "Rasselas," but his great work was the compilation of an English dictionary, the first of any real value. His friend Oliver Goldsmith, also, wrote a novel, the "Vicar of Wakefield," a readable story about real men and women, which is written with a charming simplicity and humour. Goldsmith wrote poetry as well as prose,



ROBERT BURNS

and his "Deserted Village" is as delightful as the "Vicar." Edmund Burke, the great political orator of this period, must also be remembered as an eloquent writer, and the



master of a prose style that has scarcely been surpassed in majestic elevation.

Novels of home life still continued to be written, but there was also much writing of poetry before and after the year 1800. The imagination of men of literary ability seems to have been excited by the revolutions and the new thoughts of the latter part of the eighteenth century, just as it had been by the great events of the reign of Elizabeth, and some of the poetry that was written has the freshness and ease of the Elizabethan days.

In Scotland, the writings of Robert Burns, with their beauty and pathos and humour, sound the keynote of the newly arisen interest in people because they were people, and not because they were rich or educated or of high rank. A little later Walter Scott wrote poems that have almost the ring of the old ballads. Then he wrote the first historical novels; these, too, are in sympathy with the new feeling; for in his stories it is not so often the lords and ladies as the cottagers and the men of low degree that arouse our warmest interest. Wordsworth came with his love of nature and his conviction that writing poetry was not an amusement but a serious business. Charles Lamb showed people the beauties of the old, half-forgotten dramatists, and wrote his "Essays of Elia" with their unequalled geniality, pathos, and humour. At the end of the reign of George III, the literature of the nineteenth century was well begun with freshness, brightness, humour, appreciation of the old, readiness for the new, and a rapidly developing feeling of sympathy for whatever is human.



SIR WALTER SCOTT

**244. Last days of George III.**—George III had been a determined opponent of every kind of reform. He steadily refused any concessions to the Roman Catholics, and kept

control of Parliament by grants of office or money to members, quite as shamelessly as Walpole had done, and even more openly. But yet the people of Britain had a great love for their old king, because they knew him to be sincere. They no longer remembered his early acts of tyranny; they felt only pity for the old man who had gone among them so freely, chatting familiarly with all, and who now spent his time walking aimlessly from room to room in his palace.

### SUMMARY

The reign of George III, the longest in British history except that of Queen Victoria, was marked by a series of wars. First came the American Revolution, by which Great Britain lost thirteen colonies in America. Then came riots in Ireland, led by those who wished Ireland to be an independent kingdom; and France, fresh from her own revolution, was ready to help the Irish. William Pitt brought about the union of Ireland with Great Britain. France declared war, but the supremacy of the British navy under Nelson freed Great Britain from all danger of French invasion. The war went on for twenty years, ending with Wellington's defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo. Great Britain had also been at war with the United States a second time. Many inventions came into use in this reign and many useful reforms were made.

### 4. GEORGE IV. 1820-1830

**245. George IV becomes king.**—When George IV came to the throne, in 1820, there was no enthusiasm. He had really been the ruler of Great Britain for ten years. For that length of time his father had been hopelessly insane, and he had acted as regent of the kingdom. He was reckless and profligate. More than once Parliament paid his enormous debts, but he began to contract new ones as soon as the old had been settled. Though a man of ability and able at times to show a certain charm of manner, he preferred the company of buffoons and prize-fighters to that of scholars and statesmen; he neglected and ill-used his wife; he was mean and untruthful. He was not a king of whom Britons could be proud.

**246. Social unrest continues.**—The social unrest of the time found expression in a conspiracy to murder the members

of the Cabinet, shortly after George IV came to the throne. The vast number of unemployed in the manufacturing centres were accustomed to hold meetings to consider their grievances, and at one of these meetings held at Manchester in 1819, the magistrates, fearing a riot, ordered a body of cavalry to charge through a dense throng of men, women and children; they cut them down with their swords, killing or wounding nearly a hundred. Fearful of the discontent of the people, Parliament passed severe laws to prevent such meetings. The people thought they were ill-used, and a dozen or more desperate men planned what is known as the "Cato Street Conspiracy." They were, however, betrayed by one of their own number, and five of them were executed.



GEORGE IV

After the excitement over this conspiracy had died away, Parliament at last changed the criminal laws so that a hundred or more offences, which before had been punished by hanging, were now punished by fine or imprisonment. To this work Sir Samuel Romilly had devoted his life, but he died before he saw the results of his labours.

Parliament also, under the guidance of William Huskisson, lowered the duties on wool and silk, so that manufacturers could get material to keep their factories in operation. Huskisson further succeeded in inducing Parliament to make such changes in the Navigation Acts as allowed the ships of any nation to share in the carrying trade of Great Britain, provided that a similar privilege was allowed by that nation to British ships. Machine smashing, however, still kept up. In 1826 every power-loom in the town of Blackburn was broken by a mob of men, who ignorantly thought the machines the cause of their misery. It

was some years before the general prosperity of the country put a stop to these outrages.

**247. George Canning.**—The French Revolution and the wars with Napoleon so frightened the European monarchs, that after the battle of Waterloo they leagued together to crush out any attempt that might be made by their subjects to secure more freedom. Although Britain did not join this "Holy Alliance," as it was called, still the people thought that the foreign secretary, Lord Castlereagh, was in sympathy with its aims. In



GEORGE CANNING

1822 Castlereagh committed suicide and was succeeded by Canning, whose sympathies had always been with the oppressed. Canning took an active part in the attempt of the Greeks to obtain their independence, and in 1827 was successful in inducing France and Russia to join in an agreement to settle the question. Later in the year, Sir Edward Codrington, at the head of the combined fleets of the three allied nations, completely destroyed the Turkish and

Egyptian fleets at the battle of Navarino. The result of this battle was that Turkey acknowledged the independence of Greece. Canning also saved Portugal from an attack by Spain, and encouraged Mexico and the South American states to persevere in their struggle to throw off the yoke of the Spaniards. One of his dearest projects was the granting of more civil liberty to Roman Catholics, but he was unable to carry out his wishes. He became premier in 1827, but died before he had an opportunity to put his many enlightened ideas into operation.

**248. The Catholic Relief Bill, 1829.**—Both Pitt and Canning had wished to give the utmost civil liberty to Roman

Catholics, but they had been thwarted in their efforts by the opposition of George III. In 1817, however, several concessions were made by which Roman Catholics were allowed to enter the army and navy, and to vote for members of the House of Commons. In 1828 the Test Act and other Acts were repealed in so far as they excluded dissenters from holding office under the government. These Acts had remained on the statute books since the time of Charles II, although, as far as dissenters were concerned, they had generally been disregarded, an Indemnity Act being passed each year for the purpose of relieving those who had been guilty of a breach of the laws.

In 1823 an organization known as the "Catholic Association" was formed in Ireland by Daniel O'Connell and Richard Lalor Sheil with the object of securing for Roman Catholics the right to sit in Parliament. This association soon became very powerful, and exercised a vast influence in the country. Five years later, O'Connell, who was looked upon as the leader of his fellow-religionists, offered himself as a candidate for election to the House of Commons and was triumphantly returned. It was impossible for him, as a Roman Catholic, to take the oath required from members of Parliament, but he demanded that he be allowed to take his seat. Ireland was in a ferment. The Duke of Wellington, who was at this time prime minister, with Sir Robert Peel as leader of the House of Commons, feared that if O'Connell were not admitted to Parliament, the Irish would rise in rebellion. He knew what war meant, and, strongly supported by Peel, he resolved not to oppose the demands



DANIEL O'CONNELL

of O'Connell. Accordingly, in 1829, the Catholic Relief Bill was passed, and received, after some opposition, the assent of the king. At last it was possible for a Roman Catholic to have a voice in making the laws for his country. All political offices except that of the throne, the regency, the lord chancellorship, and the lord lieutenantancy of Ireland were, from this time, open to Roman Catholics.

**249. Death of George IV.**—King George died in the summer of 1830, little regretted by the British nation. He had squandered millions of the people's money and had stood in the way of every reform.

### SUMMARY

The social unrest of the country still continued, although many changes for the better were made. The criminal laws became less severe and the trade of the country was increased by wise legislation. The Catholic Relief Bill was passed in 1829.

### 5. WILLIAM IV. 1830-1837

**250. The "Sailor King."**—William was a bluff, hearty old man of sixty-five when he began to reign. His life had been spent in the navy, so that the people gave him the name of the "Sailor King." He was a friend of the people, and throughout his reign used his best efforts on their behalf.



WILLIAM IV

**251. Reforms in electing members of Parliament.**—Reforms and inventions, and not wars, make up the history of William's reign. The first reform was in the method of electing members of Parliament. In the time of Henry III, two knights repre-

sented each shire, or county. Later, representatives were sent from some of the towns, or boroughs. Which towns

should be selected seems to have depended either upon the choice of the king or upon the willingness of the town to meet the necessary expense. It gradually became an established custom that these towns and no others should be represented in Parliament. As time passed, a borough which had no right of representation sometimes became the home of large numbers of people; while in another, which chanced to have no manufactories, the number of inhabitants had often become exceedingly small. It is said that in the year of William's coronation, a certain one of these boroughs was left without a single inhabitant, and the man that owned the land quietly selected his two members and sent them to Parliament to represent himself. Boroughs such as this and others equally depopulated were known as "rotten boroughs." Even this was better than the other side of the matter, for it was not quite so bad to have two men represent one person as to have many large cities entirely without representation, simply because the land on which they were built did not have any inhabitants in the olden times. Further, the right to vote was, in the country, confined to land-owners. A tenant might pay a yearly rental of one thousand pounds, and own dozens of cattle, and yet have no vote. In towns, there was no general law, but, as a rule, few people had votes. The majority of the House of Commons was elected by less than fifteen thousand persons.

Reform had been talked of for half a century. Pitt had plans to reform the Commons when he first took office, but the Napoleonic wars had given British statesmen other things to think of, and had created in the minds of the upper classes a fear that the people, if given political power, might use it to work a revolution. In 1831 the government of Earl Grey submitted



EARL GREY

a Reform Bill, but the Tories offered such opposition that the Parliament was dissolved. The new election gave Earl Grey a large majority, and the bill passed the Commons, only to be thrown out by the Lords. Again, in 1832, the Commons passed the bill, and again the Lords threw it out. Excitement ran high. Riots occurred, and in some places lives were lost. Earl Grey resigned, but when the Tories were unable to form a government, he took office again, upon the king's giving a pledge that, if necessary, he would create enough new peers to carry the bill in the Lords. A quiet hint from the king was taken by the leading members of the House of Lords, and the bill became law.

Fifty-six boroughs lost the right to send any members. Thirty others were to return one member each instead of two. The right of representation was given for the first time to many populous towns, and additional members were given to several counties. The franchise, or right to vote, was extended to tenants in counties paying £50 a year, and to tenants in towns paying £10 a year. Before the Reform Bill, the political power rested wholly with the nobility, clergy, and land-owners; after the Reform Bill, the great middle class, including tenant-farmers, professional men, skilled artisans, and tradesmen, were given a share in the government of the country.



WILLIAM WILBERFORCE

**252. Social reforms.**—During the latter part of the eighteenth century, the slave trade began to receive attention. Its horrors were brought vividly before the people in a book written by Thomas Clarkson, in which it was pointed out that more than fifty thousand negroes were seized in Africa every year, and carried off to be sold in America. They were crowded into ships, chained, and packed away on shelves like merchandise. A bill to prohibit the slave trade was passed three times by the House of Commons, but each



time it was rejected by the House of Lords. Finally, in 1807, an Act was passed, but it did not set free those who were already slaves; it merely made the slave trade illegal in British dominions. But men like William Wilberforce, Zachary Macaulay, and others, who had devoted their lives to the freeing of slaves, kept up the agitation, and in 1833 an Act was passed through both Houses of Parliament setting free all slaves under the British flag. Twenty million pounds was granted as compensation to the planters, and the blot of slavery disappeared from the British Empire.

One of the evils resulting from the rapid developing of the manufacturing industries was the employment of women and children in the mines and factories. They were frequently, in the mines, forced to do work fit only for strong men. Children of six were habitually employed, and their hours of labour were fourteen to sixteen daily. In the factories the work was not so hard, but the hours were equally long. Earnest men, who were striving for the good of the people, saw the evils to which this condition of affairs was leading, and put forth their utmost efforts to stop the abuses. The Earl of Shaftesbury was the leader of the movement. Various Acts were passed, each of which helped to better the condition of the women and children, but it was not until 1833 that the earl succeeded in having the employment of children limited to half time, the other half being devoted to school. Other Acts, passed early in the next reign, still further decreased the working hours of children, prohibited the employment of women in mines, and limited their labour in factories to twelve hours a day.

An important change was made at this time in the poor laws. England was overrun with paupers and vagrants. The old laws had encouraged pauperism by giving too much help. The labourers had lost all independence, and came to think it no disgrace to receive aid from the poor-rates. In some counties, three quarters of the country people were rated as paupers, so that the taxes for the poor-rate rose in 1832 to seven million pounds. In 1834 an Act was passed confining aid to the aged and infirm; all others claiming charity were sent to the parish workhouse.

The result was an enormous decrease in pauperism, and a very large decrease in the taxation.

At this time, also, the government began to take an interest in the education of the people. In 1833 only one in eleven of the children of the kingdom was in attendance at school. Much had been accomplished by private effort, but now the government took up the question seriously. As the result of a committee of inquiry, the sum of £20,000 was voted by the House of Commons for the education of the people. This was a small sum for such an important object, but it was at least a beginning.

Another great reform was in giving the right to a man accused of a crime to employ a lawyer to defend him, and to present his case to the jury. If a man was charged with a crime, the government employed a lawyer to bring up every circumstance that would tell against him, but the man himself had not this privilege. He might speak in his own behalf, but very few accused men would be likely to understand the intricacies of the law, and there must have been multitudes who were imprisoned or even executed, not because they were wicked but because they were ignorant. Now, for the first time, an accused man was allowed to have a lawyer to plead for him and to bring up every circumstance that would tell in his favour.

The condition of the workers in the mines of Great Britain was greatly bettered by the invention of the safety-lamp by Sir Humphrey Davy. Davy found that when the miner's lamp was surrounded by a wire netting it would not ignite the gases that accumulate in the mine. This discovery has saved thousands of lives.

**253. Great inventions.**—Although railways, built by George Stephenson, were in operation in England in 1825, it was not until 1830 that he constructed his steam-engine, the "Rocket," which proved capable of travelling thirty-five miles an hour. There was, at first, great opposition, both in Parliament and among the people, to the building of railways. A report on the railroad plan, read in the House of Commons, ended like this: "As for those who speculate on making railways take the place of canals, wagons, stage-

coaches, and post-chaises, throughout the kingdom, we deem them and their visionary schemes unworthy of notice. It is a gross exaggeration to say that a locomotive could be made to go fifteen miles an hour, and even if it should, the danger of bursting boilers and broken wheels would be so great that the people would suffer themselves to be fired off on a rocket about as soon as they would trust themselves on a machine going at such a rate of speed." But the bill allowing the railway to be built passed, and Stephenson's new locomotive, the "Rocket," was found to be able to go at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour without hurting any one. In the ten years after 1830, more than two thousand miles of road were built and equipped in England alone.

During this reign also the first iron ship was built and the first friction match invented. A company was also formed in London for the purpose of manufacturing from coal illuminating-gas to light the streets of the city.

**254. Separation of Hanover and Great Britain.**—William had passed his threescore and ten years, and died in 1837. Up to this time, the kings of Great Britain had been rulers of Hanover also. But by the law of Hanover, only males could succeed to the throne; therefore, when William's niece, Victoria, became queen of England, his younger brother, the Duke of Cumberland, became king of Hanover, thus separating the two countries.

### SUMMARY

The reign of the "Sailor King" was noted chiefly for its reforms. The principal ones were the extension of the franchise, the abolition of the "rotten boroughs," of some of the worst features of child-labour, and of slavery in the colonies. Men accused of crime were then, for the first time, allowed to have the aid of a lawyer. The general character of these reforms indicated a gain in public sympathy for those that needed help. Railways began to be built about this time.

### 6. VICTORIA. 1837–1901

**255. Early life and marriage.**—When Victoria was yet a little girl, it was almost certain that she would become

queen of Great Britain. Her father, Edward, Duke of Kent, the third son of George III, died when she was a few months old, and her mother wisely determined that her daughter should see very little of court life. So long as was possible, her prospect of a crown was kept secret from her; but her whole training, under her mother's careful guidance, was conducted with the object of fitting her for the position



QUEEN VICTORIA

she would be called on to fill. The death of William IV found Victoria a girl of eighteen, highly accomplished for one so young, and with fixed habits of punctuality, order, and economy.

Three years after her accession, Victoria married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, better known as the Prince Consort, the title conferred on him by the British Parliament. The marriage was especially pleasing to the personal friends of the queen, although many of her subjects felt a vague fear that his influence might prove harmful to the country.

These fears, however, were groundless. From his marriage to his death in 1861, the Prince Consort devoted himself to the good of his adopted land. The great Exhibition of 1851 was suggested and planned by him. His interest in art and in education was an unfailing inspiration and stimulus to the people of England.

256. "Penny Postage" established.—At the beginning of Victoria's reign the postage on a letter was so great that poor

people were unable to send letters at all, and even those who could afford to pay the heavy charges wrote as seldom as possible. It cost a shilling to carry a letter from London to Edinburgh, and it was said that if an Irish labourer working in England wished to write to his family at home, it would take one fifth of his weekly wages to send the letter. In 1837 Rowland Hill began to urge the government to reduce the rate of postage, and to make a uniform charge of one penny on a letter sent to any part of the kingdom. Hill proved to the British people that, if the rate of postage were lowered, so many letters would be written that the revenue would be largely increased. For a long time the government refused to make the reduction, but at length they were compelled to give way before the popular demand, and, after a short trial of a four-penny rate, in 1840 "penny-postage" was established. In the same year, postage stamps were invented, and soon came into use all over the world.

**257. War with China and with Afghanistan.**—In 1840 the desire to protect the interests of her merchants led Great Britain into a war with China. Shortly before this, the exclusive trading rights of the East India Company had expired, and an active trade in opium carried on by the British merchants, soon sprang up with China. The Chinese government did not wish this drug to be imported into their country, and took strong measures to prevent the importation. At Canton they seized and destroyed several cargoes, and refused to pay damages when called upon by the British government. The Chinese were quite right, but the question was little understood in Britain at the time, and war was the result. The Chinese were easily defeated, and compelled to pay an indemnity. Hong Kong was ceded to Britain, and several cities on the coast of China became open ports for British trade.

The following year Great Britain was called upon to interfere in a struggle between two claimants for the throne of Afghanistan. Dost Mohammed, who had usurped the throne, was friendly to Russia, and it was feared that British interests in India would suffer if he were allowed to remain in possession of the country. Accordingly, a British army invaded

Afghanistan, deposed the usurper, and placed the former king on the throne. On the way back to India, the army was treacherously attacked, and out of a force of sixteen thousand men, accompanied by many women and children, but one man succeeded in reaching the frontier; the remainder were either killed or taken prisoners. In the next year another expedition rescued the prisoners, punished the treacherous Afghans, and compelled respect for British arms.

**258. The Chartist agitation.**—In 1838 disturbances which at one time threatened to become serious, broke out all over England. The Reform Bill of 1832 had greatly extended the franchise, but the mass of the working men, who formed a large part of the population, were still without votes. A movement to secure the franchise for every man in the country was set on foot, and found a strong support among the poorer classes. A petition was drawn up and presented to Parliament. As this petition was usually spoken of as a "charter," those who supported it became known as Chartists. Their demands were six in number: that every man should have a vote; that voting should be by ballot; that members of Parliament should be paid a salary for their services; that the whole kingdom should be divided into electoral districts with equal population; that members of Parliament should not be required to hold property; that Parliaments should be elected annually instead of every seven years. On the refusal of Parliament to receive the petition, serious rioting broke out in many places, in some cases requiring the use of the military to restore order.

For ten years the agitations continued, but for the most part peaceful means were employed. In 1848, however, encouraged by the success of the French revolutionists who had in that year driven their king from the throne, the Chartists resolved on a bold step. It was announced that a monster petition, containing six million signatures, would be presented to Parliament, and that the leaders on their march to the House of Commons would be accompanied by five hundred thousand men. London was greatly alarmed. Troops were called out; two hundred thousand citizens were sworn in as special constables, and the Duke of Wellington

was placed in command. But it came to nothing; fewer than twenty-five thousand people assembled, many of whom were mere spectators. The procession was forbidden, and the leader drove alone to the House of Commons and presented the petition. The ridicule which this failure of their plans excited, put an end to the Chartist movement. Their demands, however, were not unreasonable, and several of the reforms called for have since been either wholly or partially accomplished.

**259. The repeal of the Corn Laws.**—Since the beginning of the century a strong agitation had been carried on to repeal the duties imposed on the importation of grain, or *corn*, as it is called in Great Britain. These duties pressed very heavily on the poor people who worked in the factories and mines, and who had to buy their bread. It was feared, however, that if the duties were removed, the revenues of the country would decline, and all attempts to remove them had hitherto failed. The land-owners were all-powerful in Parliament, and they were certain that such a step would ruin them.



SIR ROBERT PEELE

In 1838 the Anti-Corn Law League was organized with Richard Cobden, a calico-printer of Manchester, at its head. With him were associated John Bright and Richard Villiers. The members of the league pledged themselves to work for the abolition of all duties on grain. Little by little fair-minded men came to see how selfish it was to starve the working millions in order that a few thousand land-owners might become rich. It was only a question of time when the Corn Laws would be repealed.

The death blow to the Corn Laws came from a famine in Ireland. The Irish peasants cultivated small plots of ground, and their chief food was the potato. Thousands grew to be men and women scarcely knowing the taste of meat; even bread was a luxury. In 1845 a long season of rain and cloud caused a blight to attack the potatoes. The staple food of the people was gone, and they crowded into the cities, where thousands died of starvation or disease arising from the lack of proper food. The famine and the emigration that followed reduced the population of Ireland from eight to six millions.

Sir Robert Peel saw that cheap food must be provided at once, even more for Ireland than for England and Scotland, and pressed upon his associates in the ministry the necessity for repealing the duties on grain. They refused, and Peel resigned. But no minister could be found who could carry on the government, and Peel resumed office. In 1846 a bill was carried through Parliament, to go into effect on February 1st, 1849, which removed practically all duties on grain imported from abroad.

260. **The Crimean War.**—Centuries ago the Mohammedar Turks captured Constantinople and gained a strong foothold in Europe. For many years they were a constant menace to the peace of the continent, but for a century before this period their power had gradually been declining, and they

were no longer feared by the other nations. Indeed, it became a question as to what should be done with the territory of the Turks in the expected falling to pieces of the nation. Russia was very anxious to extend her dominions to the Mediterranean, but this was strongly



THE CRIMEA

opposed by Great Britain. Turkey, by her position, controlled both the Black Sea and the eastern end of the



Mediterranean, and Great Britain knew that if a strong nation like Russia should gain possession of this important position, her commerce with India would be seriously affected. In 1853 the Czar proposed to the British ambassador at St. Petersburg a plan for the ending of the Turkish empire in Europe and a division of territory between Great Britain and Russia. The proposal was declined, but Russia went quietly on with her plans.

An opportunity soon offered for Russia to interfere in the affairs of Turkey. The Czar, as head of the Greek church, claimed to be the protector of the Greek Christians living in Turkey, and the refusal of the Sultan to recognize this claim led to war. The Turkish fleet was destroyed. Constantinople was threatened by the Russians. At this point Great Britain and France interfered and declared war against Russia. The allies poured troops into the Crimea, defeated the Russians at the Alma River, and laid siege to Sebastopol, the great naval fortress on the Black Sea. Two fierce battles were fought at Balaklava and at Inkerman, in both of which the allies were victorious. At Balaklava took place the famous charge of the Light Brigade, one of the most glorious incidents in the history of the British army.

But the war was badly managed. The officers and men were brave, but the generals were unskilful, and there was no one in command who knew how to feed and clothe an army in the field. During the winter the soldiers were thinly clad and starving in the trenches before Sebastopol, while a few miles away were shiploads of food and warm clothing.



LORD PALMERSTON

Hospital arrangements were so poor that six men died of disease or neglect to one man killed in battle.

When news of the suffering of the army and the mismanagement of the officials reached England, the popular indignation was so great that the prime minister, Lord Aberdeen, was forced to resign, and Lord Palmerston took his place. In a short time affairs were much improved, and the sufferings of the soldiers relieved. The allies, now joined by the Sardinians, pushed the siege of Sebastopol so vigorously that at last the fortress fell. Peace was made in March, 1856. Great Britain had lost thousands of brave soldiers and had spent £77,000,000. In return she had gained nothing, except to check Russia for a time.

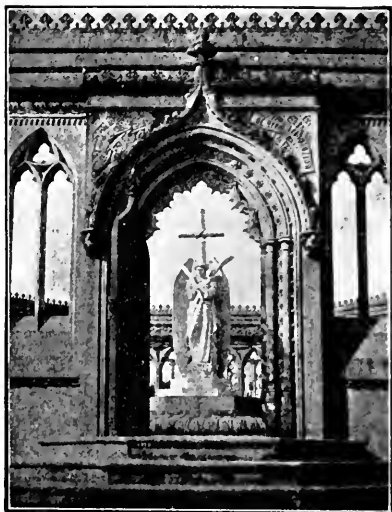
Of all those connected with the Crimean War, perhaps Florence Nightingale will be longest remembered. At the request of the secretary for war, she set out from England with a band of nurses to take full charge of the hospitals in the Crimea. These devoted women soon gave the hospitals an air of order and cleanliness. The effect of their efforts was soon evident in the rapid decrease of the death-rate, and in the number of sick and wounded who were able to return to duty. Florence Nightingale lived to the ripe age of ninety years, dying during the summer of 1910.

**261. The Indian Mutiny, 1857-58.**—Hardly was the Crimean War brought to a close when a terrible mutiny broke out in India among the sepoy, or native soldiers, in the service of the British government. There was some dissatisfaction among the people of India at the way in which the government was administered, but the mutiny itself was, with few exceptions, confined to the troops. The British forces in India consisted almost entirely of natives serving under British officers, but they were thoroughly trained, and had been brought to a high state of efficiency. Several native states had recently been annexed by the British; then, too, certain reforms undertaken by the government had roused a fear among the natives of India that they would all be forced to become Christians. About the same time, a new kind of rifle was introduced that re-

quired cartridges greased with a mixture of tallow and lard, and the soldier was obliged to bite off the end of the cartridge. The Hindu looked upon the cow as sacred, the Mohammedan scorned the hog as unclean; and unscrupulous men, for purposes of their own, persuaded the soldiers that the government had introduced this new cartridge on purpose to insult their religion. This was the immediate reason for the mutiny. Rumour had said in India that British rule there was destined to come to an end one hundred years from the battle of Plassey. The fatal year had come.

The mutiny broke out at Meerut early in 1857, and soon spread to all parts of India. The story that follows is one of untold suffering and heroic endurance. Everywhere the rising was accompanied by frightful massacres, which exhibited all the atrocities of barbarous warfare. The British were not fighting against an undisciplined horde, but against veteran soldiers trained by themselves in all the arts of modern warfare. Massacre followed massacre. Delhi was captured by the sepoys and the ancient government again set up. At Cawnpore the British troops held out bravely for twenty-one days against Nana Sahib, the leader of the rebels, but finally they were induced to surrender by promises of a safe retreat. No sooner had they laid down their arms than they were attacked, and the greater number killed. About two hundred women and children, who were captured at the same time, were shortly afterwards brutally murdered by order of Nana Sahib. At Lucknow the British troops and residents, with the assistance of a number of loyal sepoys, held the Residency for eighty-seven days against the most determined attacks, until Sir Henry Havelock and Sir James Outram came to their aid. But it was not until they had defended the place for one hundred and forty-one days that they were finally relieved by the commander-in-chief, Sir Colin Campbell, and enabled to reach a place of safety. In the Punjab, however, the rebellion made no headway, as there Sir John Lawrence, the able and energetic administrator, armed the Sikhs and overpowered the sepoys at the very beginning of the outbreak.

That the rebellion did not last a very long time was due to the men who were in charge of Indian affairs, more particularly to Lord Canning, the governor-general, and Sir John Lawrence, and to the loyalty of the Sikhs from the northern provinces. Troops were hurried, against apparently overwhelming odds, into the disaffected districts. Delhi was besieged, and after a desperate struggle captured. After the fall of Delhi, the rebellion began to die out, although it was not until over a year later that British authority was once more established over the whole of India.



THE MEMORIAL AT CAWNPORE

The lesson of the mutiny had been severe and was taken to heart by the British government. It was felt that it would not be wise to allow the East India Company to have anything further to do with the government of India, but that Great Britain must assume full responsibility. Accordingly, India was placed under the direct control of the British government. On January 1st, 1877, British rule in India was further strengthened by the proclamation of Queen Victoria as Empress of India.

**262. Minor wars.**—From the close of the Indian mutiny to the end of the century, Great Britain was engaged in a number of wars waged principally against savage or semi-civilized peoples and on behalf of her empire. These were for the most part unimportant, both in the actual fighting and in the results that followed, although some of them were not brought to an end without considerable difficulty. Among the most important of these wars were the Abyss-

sinian expedition under Sir Robert Napier in 1867, the Ashanti expedition under Sir Garnet Wolseley in 1873, the war against Cetewayo, the king of the Zulus, conducted by Lord Chelmsford in 1879, and the Afghan war of 1879-80, in which Sir Frederick Roberts held the chief command. The Zulu war is remembered chiefly for the disastrous defeat of the British at Isandlawna, where out of a detachment of eight hundred only forty remained alive, and for the heroic defence of Rorke's Drift by a handful of British soldiers against the entire Zulu army. In the Afghan war, Sir Frederick Roberts distinguished himself by his famous march from Kabul to the relief of Kandahar, where a body of British troops was besieged by an overwhelming force of Afghans. For three weeks Roberts disappeared, but at the end of that time, he suddenly appeared before Kandahar and won a decisive victory. This march is considered to be one of the most brilliant military achievements of its kind in either ancient or modern times.

**263. Trouble with the United States.**—In 1861 a civil war broke out between the Northern and the Southern States of the American union, mainly over the question of negro slavery. The British government issued a proclamation declaring a strict neutrality, and warning British subjects against giving aid to either side. The war caused great distress in the manufacturing districts of England, owing to the impossibility of obtaining raw cotton, the supply of which came principally from the Southern States.

The Southern Confederacy had sent two commissioners to England, who had taken passage in a British vessel, the *Trent*. An officer of the United States navy boarded the *Trent* and forcibly took the two men prisoners. This act caused great excitement, and for a time it seemed that war would result, but in the end the United States admitted that the act was wrong and the men were surrendered.

While the war was in progress the Southern ports were blockaded by United States war-ships. Many British merchantmen ran the blockade, and carried supplies to the Confederates, returning loaded with cotton. At a later period the Confederates fitted out vessels, such as the *Ala-*

*bama*, in British ports, and used them to injure the commerce of the United States. When the Civil War had been brought to an end, the United States claimed compensation for these injuries. The most that could be urged against Great Britain was that the government had not taken care to prevent the vessels from leaving port, after it was known that they were being fitted out with hostile designs against the United States. It was agreed by the treaty of Washington that the claims should be settled by arbitration, and in 1872 an international court met at Geneva, Switzerland, for this purpose. The court awarded the United States \$15,500,000, and the award was promptly paid.

264. **The treaty of Berlin.**—In 1876 the eastern question again troubled the peace of Europe. The Servians, Montenegrins, and Bulgarians, goaded to desperation by the oppression of the Turks, rose in open rebellion. The rising was put down with such severity that the European powers felt called upon to interfere. Russia, however, was the only power that carried her interference so far as to declare

war. At first the Turks were victorious; but when the Russian army laid siege to Constantinople, the Sultan gave way, and a preliminary treaty, which would have placed Turkey completely under the control of Russia, was signed.

Such a state of affairs would have reversed almost entirely all the arrangements made after the Crimean War, and would have seriously threatened Britain's supremacy in the East. Accordingly, the British government issued a circular



BENJAMIN DISRAELI, EARL OF  
BEACONSFIELD

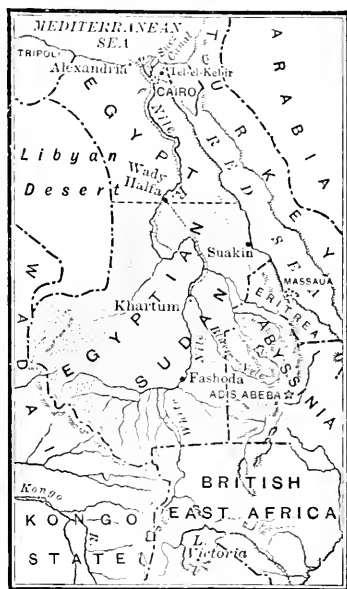
letter to the powers, urging joint action in connection with the Turkish question. The powers agreed, and a Congress

was held in 1878 at Berlin, which was attended by the prime minister, Benjamin Disraeli, and Lord Salisbury as the representatives of Great Britain. Many questions were settled, but the principal result was the checking of Russia's ambitious designs. Britain undertook to guarantee the Sultan's possessions in Asia, and in return occupied Cyprus.

**265. Affairs in Egypt.**—Among the foreign enterprises of Disraeli, was the purchase of nearly half the stock of the Suez Canal Company. The Khedive of Egypt sold his share, which was nearly half the entire value of the canal, to the British government for \$20,000,000. The people of Great Britain were delighted with the transaction, because the canal is of the utmost value to their commerce. The purchase gave Great Britain some right to interfere in Egyptian affairs, and the necessity for such interference soon arose.

In 1882 a rising against Europeans in Egypt, led by Arabi Bey, an officer of the Egyptian army, resulted in the bombardment and destruction of Alexandria by the British. This was followed by the battle of Tel-el-Kebir, where Sir Garnet Wolseley defeated Arabi Bey and took him prisoner. The Khedive has continued to be the nominal ruler of Egypt, but since 1882 the practical control has been entirely in the hands of Great Britain.

The Egyptian government had gradually been extending its rule over the Soudan, the great country south of Egypt and west of Abyssinia, and several garrisons were established



THE EGYPTIAN SOUDAN

at Khartoum and other places. These garrisons were threatened by the rising of a new "Mahdi," a prophet among the Arabs of the Soudan. The fanatical Mohammedans fought with great bravery, and defeated several Egyptian armies sent against them. The native forces were in turn defeated in two battles by a British expedition under General Graham, but these troops were at once withdrawn. The British government then sent General Gordon to withdraw the Egyptian garrisons from the Soudan. He succeeded in reaching Khartoum, but was there hemmed in by the Mahdi. While waiting for British troops to come to his aid, he and his army were massacred in 1885 by the natives, who were treacherously admitted into the fort. A short time after the death of Gordon, the relief expedition under Lord Wolseley arrived at Khartoum, only to find it in possession of the Mahdi.

For some years the Soudan remained in the possession of the Khalifa, who had succeeded to the leadership of the Mahdi; but in 1898 General Kitchener was sent into the Soudan from Egypt with an army of twenty-five thousand men. He met the Arabs, fifty thousand strong, at Omdurman, and completely defeated them. This victory was followed by the capture of Khartoum, and the establishment of British supremacy in the Soudan.

**266. The Boer War, 1899-1902.**—In 1899 Great Britain became engaged in a struggle with the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State. South Africa had originally been settled by the Dutch, who soon became known as Boers, the Dutch word for *farmers*. In the course of the wars with Napoleon this land fell into the hands of the British. The Boers disliked British rule. They preferred to live by themselves, cultivating great tracts of territory and pasturing large herds of cattle, which were looked after by natives, servants in name, but in reality slaves. On several occasions the Boers abandoned their homes before the advance of British settlement, and went further north, finally settling down in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. But difficulties with the natives were constant, and Britain was frequently called on to protect the new settlements against the tribes, who



were justly angry at the way in which they were treated by the Boers. In 1881, after the close of the war with the Zulus, the Transvaal demanded that Great Britain should recognize its independence, as some years before it had in the case of the Orange Free State. The result was that the Boers invaded Natal and defeated small bodies of British troops at Laing's Nek and Majuba Hill. Immediately after the latter battle the British government gave up the contest and declared the Transvaal to be independent, except in matters relating to foreign affairs and dealings with the native chiefs.



THE BOER REPUBLICS

Then gold was discovered in the Transvaal, and this new interest brought swarms of people, chiefly British, into the country. The Boers were determined to yield nothing. Instead of welcoming the newcomers and admitting them to a share in the government, they did what they could to make their position uncomfortable, imposed heavy taxes and monopolies upon them, and refused to grant them any privileges in return. The British government finally interfered on behalf of the Outlanders, as the new settlers were called, and requested the Transvaal to treat them with more consideration. This was refused, and then it became a question as to who should rule in South Africa. The Orange Free State sided with the Transvaal, an insolent answer was given to the British demands, the Boers invaded British territory, and the struggle broke out.

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At first the Boers, strong in the remembrance of Majuba Hill, advanced rapidly and hemmed in large bodies of British troops in Ladysmith, Mafeking, and Kimberley. These places made an heroic defence, and at once tremendous efforts were made to relieve them. At first the British troops, over-

confident and ill-prepared, suffered some severe reverses, but now the whole Empire was shaken to its centre. Troops were poured into South Africa from Great Britain and India; Canada, Australia, and New Zealand furnished men and hurried them to the seat of war, and soon a large army under Lord Roberts marched into the Orange Free State. By a



EARL ROBERTS

brilliant march, Lord Roberts captured the Boer general Cronje with his army, occupied Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, and soon was in possession of Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal. The immediate result of this rapid series of manœuvres was the relief of the besieged places, to the intense joy of the whole Empire. Lord Roberts was now obliged to return to England, and the conduct of affairs was left to Lord Kitchener. However, the war was not yet over; in fact the most diffi-

cult part was to come. The Boers were determined not to give in, and fought desperately to retain their independence. Separating into small bands, and mounted on rapid horses, they kept up a guerilla warfare for some time longer. At last, however, they recognized that defeat was inevitable, and on May 31st, 1902, a peace was arranged. Liberal terms were granted to the Boers, and the two republics became a part of the British Empire.

267. **Great parliamentary leaders.**—The history of Britain during the reign of Victoria centres mainly around the lives of four men, Sir Robert Peel, Lord Palmerston, Benjamin Disraeli, and William Ewart Gladstone. There were many other statesmen, such as Lord Melbourne, Lord John Russell, and Earl Derby, who held high and important offices, but

these four men are the most commanding figures. All were members of the House of Commons, all were great leaders, and all were associated with measures for the advancement of their country.

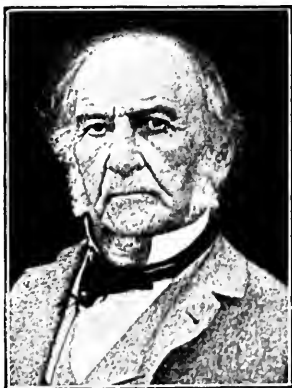
Sir Robert Peel first entered Parliament in 1809, and, as his promotion was rapid, some of his best work was done before Victoria began to reign. He was associated with a number of the most important reform movements of the century, particularly the abolition of the Corn Laws, a question on which he was compelled to differ from his associates and from almost all his old time supporters in the House of Commons. Many of his followers accused him of deserting the policy he had been chosen to support, and he was driven from power. He still held his high place in the esteem of the nation, but did not again hold office. In 1850 he was killed by a fall from his horse.

Lord Palmerston, a viscount in the peerage of Ireland, was, in many respects, the opposite of Sir Robert Peel. He was very little interested in home affairs, and for the most part was a steady opponent of political reform. His greatest triumphs were won in the field of diplomacy. As foreign minister, he had a passion for maintaining the honour and dignity of Britain, and perhaps plunged his country into many conflicts which might, without much difficulty, have been avoided. The nation, however, felt that its interests abroad were safe as long as Palmerston had control. He died, while prime minister, in 1865.

Benjamin Disraeli believed in his country as thoroughly as did Lord Palmerston, and was sincerely anxious to have Great Britain play a brilliant part among the nations, and to have her greatness recognized in every part of the world. His first speech in the House of Commons was received with such shouts of laughter that he was compelled to sit down. "I will sit down now," he said, "but the time will come when you will hear me." Step by step his knowledge of public questions and his skill in debate brought him to the front, and the Conservatives were forced to accept him as their leader, although many of them believed that he was a man without strong political convictions. He became prime

minister for the first time in 1868. In 1876 he was raised to the peerage as Earl of Beaconsfield. He died in 1881.

William Ewart Gladstone differed from all three of his great contemporaries in his intense interest in domestic legislation and in social and political reforms. He was much more anxious to raise the masses of the people than to play a great part in the politics of the world. One of his strongest desires was to keep Britain at peace, and to impress the nations that, though strong, his country was just. His work as a statesman was wholly intended to improve the condition of the people, and to him is due a great deal of the most important legislation of the last sixty years. Throughout his career he may at times have



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE

seemed inconsistent, but every change of opinion was always a step in advance; he never hesitated to do what he thought to be right. His death took place in 1898.

**268. Irish reforms.**—Throughout the reign of Victoria, the "Irish question" was a pressing matter. One difficulty after another rose and "would not down." After Daniel O'Connell's success in securing parliamentary representation for the Roman Catholics, he aimed at nothing less than a free Parliament for Ireland and the restoration of its national life. What might have been the result if the life of this earnest, eloquent, enthusiastic leader of the people had been prolonged, it is not easy to say.

One great cause of complaint in Ireland was that all inhabitants, of whatever church, were taxed to support the Episcopal church. Another was the famous "land question." Vast areas of Irish land were owned by Englishmen who, perhaps, had never been in Ireland, and had no further interest in the country than to see that their agents were prompt in forwarding the rents. A tenant might be

driven from his farm at any moment. If he drained a swamp or cleared a bit of land from stumps and stones, his rent would be raised because the land had become more valuable. In 1868, under Gladstone's leadership, a law was passed disestablishing the Episcopal church in Ireland. Two years later, he succeeded in carrying through an Irish Land Act, which provided that the tenant should be paid for making improvements, and that if he paid his rent he should not be driven from his farm at the whim of the landlord.

This law was good, but the landlords found ways of evading it. Then a strong party arose in Ireland demanding "Home Rule," that is, that Ireland should have a Parliament of her own, which would be supreme in local affairs. The leader was Charles Stuart Parnell. He was a calm, cool man, but many of his followers were hot-headed and violent; frequently there were murders and other crimes in Ireland. In spite of this, Gladstone still struggled on behalf of Irish Home Rule, but though a bill for this purpose was finally passed by the Commons in 1892, it was defeated by the Lords. The struggle for Home Rule carried on by Gladstone caused a split in the Liberal party in Great Britain, as many of his supporters, led by such men as the Duke of Devonshire, John Bright, and Joseph Chamberlain, abandoned him, and joined the Conservatives who were opposed to granting a separate government to Ireland. The Marquis of Salisbury, who succeeded Gladstone as prime minister, found his supporters among both Conservatives and Liberals, who were thenceforth known as Unionists.

**269. The extension of the franchise.**—The cry for an extension of the franchise, raised at first by the Chartists, died away on the adoption of a free-trade policy, only to awaken with increased force after the Crimean War. The demand among the people was so strong that Gladstone, in 1866, introduced a Reform Bill, but the measure was defeated in the House of Commons, and the government was forced to resign. In the next year, however, Disraeli carried through a Reform Bill even more far-reaching than the one defeated a year before. By this bill the small tenant-farmers, tradesmen, merchants, and clerks received

the franchise. Five years later Gladstone carried through the Ballot Act, thus granting another demand of the Chartists. Before this, the voter went to the polls and openly declared for which candidate his votes should be counted. After the Ballot Act came into force, it was impossible to tell for whom the voter cast his ballot, thus lessening very much the dangers of bribery and threatening. In 1884 Gladstone passed the third Reform Bill, which gave the right to vote to two and one-half millions of farm labourers, miners, and male servants. Before 1832, the voters were one in every fifty of the population; after 1884, they were one in six, or one to almost every family.

**270. Religious freedom.**—The progress of religious freedom was rapid during the reign of Victoria. The repeal of the Test and other preventative Acts had given Roman Catholics and Protestant dissenters the right to vote and to hold public offices. It was not, however, until 1858 that this right was extended to the Jews. In that year Baron Rothschild, the head of the great Jewish banking house of that name, was allowed to take his seat in the House of Commons.

From the time of their foundation, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge were closely connected with the Church of England. No student was allowed to take a degree unless he would subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles, nor could a scholar be appointed to any office in either of the universities without a similar test. In 1871 Parliament, acting on the report of a Royal Commission appointed to investigate the question, removed these tests.

In 1868 compulsory rates for the support of the established church were abolished, and in 1870 dissenters were allowed to bury their dead in the parish churchyards, using their own rites and ceremonies. The Church of England still remains the established church in England and Wales and the Church of Scotland in Scotland; in Ireland there is no established church.

**271. The progress of education.**—The marriage registers of England and Wales furnish certain proof that when Victoria began to reign, two out of every five grown men and

women could not sign their names, when the queen died, this number was less than one in ten. From the very beginning of the Victorian period interest in education was quickened. The church schools and charity schools, as well as private schools, increased in numbers and improved in methods. The educated classes began to realize that ignorance was a national calamity. No doubt, too, the example of public schools in other countries influenced opinion in England.

After the passage of the Reform Bill of 1867, Robert Lowe, a member of Parliament remarked, "Now that we are ruled by the majority, the workingmen, we must educate our own masters." It was not, however, until 1870 that an Education Act was passed, establishing a system of national education under the supervision of elective school boards. A small fee was charged where the people could afford to pay. All children were compelled to attend, and the dense ignorance which had so long prevailed in the great cities began to disappear. In each town there was a School Board chosen to look after the new schools, to which the name "Board Schools" was therefore given. Women as well as men were allowed to become members of such boards, and some of the best people took an active interest in education. This system was much improved in 1891, and made entirely free; since that time, the poorest child is secured a fair education. In 1872 an Education Act, similar to that in England, was passed for Scotland; in Ireland also ample provision is made for the free education of the people.

**272. Material and social progress.**—Steam railways and steamships were just beginning operation in Great Britain when Victoria became queen. Their future was uncertain. Many people thought that George Stephenson was out of his mind when he said that it would soon be cheaper for a labourer to ride on a railway to his work than to wear out shoe-leather in walking. In spite of opposition, however, before Victoria's death, Britain had twenty-two thousand miles of railway, trains were run frequently at the rate of seventy miles an hour, and the workingman could travel any place for a penny a mile, and often for less. The progress of

engineering, so important in the building of railways, has benefited the people in another way. It is now common for large cities to bring through underground pipes a supply of pure water from natural lakes, often more than thirty miles distant.

The first steamboat crossed the Atlantic in 1838, and within five years Britain had rapid communication with every part of the world. The laying of ocean cables perfected this communication, and was of special advantage to an empire stretching round the globe. Sixty years ago there were towns in England of twelve thousand people without a post-office. Now every village has not only a post-office, but government telegraph and telephone lines. A few years before Victoria's time a daily newspaper which gave very little news cost £10 a year; now a paper with the latest home and foreign news sells on the streets of London daily for half a penny. Half a century ago the labourer's cottage often had not even a tallow candle; now coal oil and gas and electricity are so cheap that all may use them. Before the discovery of photography and electrotyping even the commonest pictures were beyond the poor; now repro-



CARDINAL NEWMAN

ductions of works of art are within the reach of all. Improved and cheaper processes of type-setting and printing have made books so cheap that the poorest labourer may own his own library, if he wishes.

Great suffering, too, has been prevented by the discovery of chloroform and ether. In the time of the Crimean War thousands of wounded soldiers died, whose lives might have been saved by a better knowledge of surgery, especially in the use of antiseptics. One of the greatest

glories of the Victorian age is the work done in the way of preventing disease and suffering.



During the reign of Victoria, the condition of the working classes was greatly improved. The organization of trade unions enabled them to band together and work unitedly to gain their ends. Laws regulating labour, ventilation in factories and mines, and compensation to injured workmen, were passed and rigidly enforced. Crime also diminished greatly; in 1837 there were fifty thousand convicts in the prisons of Great Britain, to-day there are about six thousand. Industrial schools were established, where young offenders of both sexes were made to work and were taught some useful trade.

Women, too, have gradually been gaining more freedom and better opportunities. In 1869 single women and widows who were householders were given votes in municipal elections, and in 1870 they were allowed both to vote for and to be elected to School Boards.

**273. The literature of Victoria's reign.**—It is not difficult to look back upon a century that is long past and see who were the greatest writers, but the Victorian age is so near that we cannot always distinguish the books that will last from those that are liked for a moment and then forgotten. The great events of the Elizabethan period stimulated the imagination, but the marvellous inventions of our own time are just as exciting. To-day education is far more general. Very many wish to write, and in this mass of writing there is much that is really excellent. To select from the long list of authors that seem to be great is not easy. Tennyson, Browning, and Swinburne are perhaps the first of the poets. Among historians the name of Macaulay is most familiar to the British people as a whole, partly because he wrote a history of their own land, but chiefly because his style is so clear and interesting. Thomas



LORD TENNYSON

Carlyle, Cardinal Newman, and John Ruskin are masters of prose, and certain to be remembered.

Among the books of whose making there is no end, the novel holds the most prominent place. Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, and "George Eliot" have long been our best



CHARLES DICKENS

known writers of fiction, four authors who are so dissimilar that the popularity of all is, in itself, a proof that the novel is enjoyed by all kinds of people. But the object of the novel of to-day is not merely to give pleasure. Fiction is no longer a source of amusement and nothing more; it has become a useful servant. Perhaps the most excellent feature of this ascendancy of the novel is that we require our fiction to be true to life. Adventures must be probable, characters

must be consistent, and the historical novel, if it would have more than a passing fame, must be the work of the student as well as the teller of stories.

**274. Jubilee years.**—The fiftieth anniversary of Victoria's accession to the throne was celebrated in 1887 by a brilliant military parade at which representative troops from all parts of the Empire were present. Ten years later, in 1897, the sixtieth anniversary was celebrated by an even more imposing military spectacle. The prime ministers of all the colonies, accompanied by detachments of colonial troops, attended, and took part in the demonstration. Both these jubilee parades were more than mere show. They demonstrated the wealth, the extent, the power, and the loyalty of a united and self-governing people.

**275. Influence of Queen Victoria.**—There were world-stirring events during the life of Queen Victoria, but no one of them held so steadily the interest and attention of the

English-speaking world as did the queen herself. Her twenty years of marriage with Prince Albert were the happiest period of her life, and at his death her sorrow was so overwhelming and so enduring that her people felt almost impatient with her avoidance of all social life. Neither grief nor weariness, however, was allowed to interfere with the hard work which, from the beginning of her reign to its close, she felt was demanded by her position. One of her prime ministers is said to have declared that he "would rather manage ten kings than one queen;" for she would do nothing for expediency, and would sign no papers that she did not understand. In the year of the Chartist excitement, for instance, every one of the twenty-eight thousand despatches that came to the foreign office passed through her hands and engaged her thoughts. It was no easy life that she led.

In her reign there were "wars and rumours of wars," but the influence of Victoria herself was always for peace. With her, in place of the Hanoverian obstinacy or corruptness came firmness and purity. One of the stories of her childhood says that when she first knew that some time she would be queen of England, she said, "I will be good." Marcus Aurelius says that it is "hard to be good in a palace," but Queen Victoria showed by her sixty-three years in "that fierce light which beats upon a throne" that her childish promise was as sacred to her as the solemn oath of her coronation.



QUEEN VICTORIA AT THE AGE OF  
SEVENTY-EIGHT

The queen died in January, 1901, at Osborne House, her winter residence in the Isle of Wight.

"Her court was pure; her life serene;  
God gave her peace; her land reposed;  
A thousand claims to reverence closed  
In her as Mother, Wife, and Queen."

### SUMMARY

In Victoria's reign the result of the Chartist agitation, of the repeal of the Corn Laws, and of the admission of Jews to Parliament gave increased freedom to many thousand people, while "board schools" made it possible for a much larger number of children to obtain an education. There were several wars: the "Opium War" with China; the Afghan War; the Crimean War, famous chiefly for the bravery of the soldiers and the suffering they endured; the terrible Indian Mutiny, and the war with the Boers in South Africa. The "Alabama Claims" against Great Britain by the United States were settled by arbitration. The demand of Ireland for reforms had long been a pressing question, but some progress was made towards its solution. The literature of the reign is of immense bulk and of widely varying value, some of it approaching near to the most excellent work of the past ages. The progress of invention was unprecedented. In one sense the reign of Victoria was a "personal monarchy," for by the irresistible force of a strong, pure womanhood, she attained that sovereignty over her land and her people for which arbitrary and tyrannous rulers have sought in vain.

### 7. EDWARD VII. 1901-1910

276. **A constitutional king.**—After being fifty-eight years Prince of Wales, much was expected of Edward as king. When taking the oath of office, he expressed a desire to follow in the footsteps of his mother as a constitutional monarch, and, during his reign his course was such as to satisfy even the most exacting critic. His severe illness, just at the date set for his coronation in 1902, called forth the sympathy of the whole world. At his accession an important change was made in the title of the king. He was crowned as "Edward VII, by the grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British Dominions beyond the seas, King, Defender of the Faith,

Emperor of India." This is henceforth to be the official designation of our sovereign.

**277. Domestic legislation.**—Owing to advancing age, the Marquis of Salisbury, who had been prime minister at the accession of Edward, resigned in 1902. He was succeeded by Arthur J. Balfour, who in 1903, carried through an Irish Land Act in the endeavour to do away with the existing discontent in that country. By the terms of this Act, the Irish farmers are assisted by the Imperial government in buying their farms from the landlords. As the farmers become freeholders, it is hoped that they will have an increased interest in making homes for themselves and in the general prosperity of the country. The results of the Act are so far quite satisfactory, many tenant-farmers having already taken advantage of its provisions. Later, under the government of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, who succeeded Balfour as prime minister, many reforms were made in the government of Ireland, particularly in the establishment of universities satisfactory to the people. The Irish leaders, however, are by no means satisfied with these measures of reform as the final settlement of all the difficulties that surround the Irish question, and are still keeping up a vigorous agitation in favour of Home Rule.

A new Education Act was also passed by the Balfour government in 1902, supplemented as regards London by an Act in the following year. These Acts extended the national system of education to embrace all departments from the primary school to the university, and made County Councils and County Borough Councils the local school authorities for their districts. State aid is given to public and private schools alike, and religious instruction is permitted.

An important departure was made in 1908, when, by the



KING EDWARD VII

Old Age Pension Act, every man or woman over seventy years of age who has been a British subject, and has had his residence in the United Kingdom for twenty years and whose income does not exceed twenty-five pounds, is entitled to receive a pension of an amount which runs, according to his or her means from one shilling to five shillings a week. In



THE MARQUIS OF SALISBURY

1909, nearly seven hundred thousand persons in Great Britain and Ireland were in receipt of old age pensions from the government.

In 1909 a serious difference arose between the Liberal government, under the premiership of Herbert Henry Asquith, and the House of Lords, over the question of the budget, or moneys to be provided by Parliament for carrying on the government of the country. Certain forms of taxation proposed were strongly objected to by the

Lords, who maintained their right to reject the budget as a whole, and so force an appeal to the people. This they did, and a general election followed. The result was favourable to the government and the House of Lords agreed to the budget; but the constitutional question arising from their action still remains unsettled.

**278. Relations with foreign powers.**—In 1898 the Czar of Russia issued invitations to the rulers of all civilized nations to send representatives to a Peace Conference to meet at The Hague. The result was an arrangement by which a permanent international Arbitration Court was established, the meetings of the court to be held at The Hague. No nation has as yet agreed to submit all disputes with other nations to this court, but many, including Great Britain, have agreed to submit for its decision such questions as do not vitally affect their national honour.

Thus in 1904, a serious international dispute in which Great Britain became engaged was settled by reference to arbitration. Late in the autumn of that year, the Russian fleet set out for Asiatic waters to take part in the Russo-Japanese War. Owing to a mistake on the part of the commander of the fleet, when in the North Sea, several shots were fired at British fishing boats engaged in fishing on the Dogger Bank. Two men were killed and several injured. For some time there was a possibility of war between the two countries, but wise and prudent counsel prevailed. The question was referred to arbitration and a friendly settlement was reached.

Several important arrangements were made during the reign of Edward which have had a strong effect in securing the peace of the world. In 1904 an agreement was reached with France by which all questions then in dispute between the two countries were amicably settled. France consented to recognize British supremacy in Egypt, and in return Great Britain recognized French supremacy in Morocco. At the same time, among a number of smaller but not less vexatious matters, the "French Shore" difficulty in Newfoundland was adjusted. In the next year an offensive and defensive alliance was entered into with Japan to maintain the existing condition of affairs in the East, for a term not longer than ten years, from 1905. With Russia, also, an arrangement was made which ensured a thorough understanding with that monarchy.

No influence has been more potent for peace and in securing friendly relations with foreign powers than that of Edward VII. By his wise statesmanship and kindly tact, combined with long experience, he was enabled to secure for Great Britain the cordial friendship of practically every nation in the world. His efforts in this direction gained for him, with the consent of all civilized nations, the title of "Peace-maker."

**279. Death of Edward VII.**—Early in May, 1910, the announcement was made from Buckingham Palace that the king was suffering from a severe cold, but it was not thought that the illness was serious. Two days later, on May 6th, 1910, he died. The death of no British sovereign

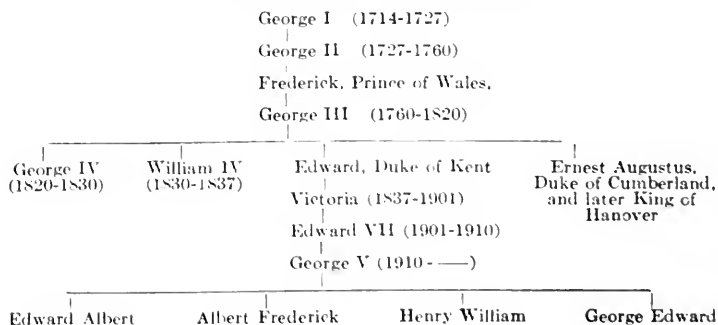
ever called forth more sincere expressions of sorrow than did that of Edward VII. Nor was the sorrow confined to the British dominions; the whole world joined in mourning for the dead king. He had proved himself, during his short reign of nine years, a wise sovereign, a brilliant diplomatist, and a kindly and kingly man.

**280. The reigning king.**—On the death of Edward VII, his son, the Prince of Wales, became king under the name of George V. He was early intended for the navy, and, until the death of Queen Victoria, followed that profession. Since that time he has visited almost every part of the British Empire, making himself familiar with the countries and the people over whom he now rules. In 1893 he married the Princess Victoria Mary, of Teck, who now shares the throne with him as Queen Mary.

### SUMMARY

When Edward succeeded Victoria, he expressed a desire to follow in her footsteps and to be, in fact as well as in name, a constitutional ruler. Many measures of reform were carried in the effort to better social conditions. Reforms were also made in the government of Ireland. Many international agreements of first importance were made with foreign powers. The efforts of the king were directed towards securing the most friendly relations between Great Britain and the nations of the world.

### THE HOUSE OF HANOVER





## CHAPTER IX

### THE BRITISH EMPIRE

**281. The British Empire.**—In all the history of dominion, there is, perhaps, nothing more astounding than the fact that a small country almost without allies or even well-wishers, should have extended its power over so large a part of the world as the British Empire occupies to-day. It now includes about one quarter of the land surface of the globe. Of its total population, only about fifty-five millions, or one in seven, are of British blood. Unless this fact is grasped clearly, it is impossible to appreciate the wonderful work being done in controlling and civilizing the millions of subject people, comprising hundreds of races, each with its own language, customs, and religion. Rarely, if ever, does Britain find it necessary to resort to force in governing her subject peoples. Even their prejudices are respected; their religion, their social customs, and local laws are seldom interfered with, unless for the purpose of preventing crime or abolishing brutal customs. In this lies the secret of Britain's empire-building. Her aim is to give her colonies as great a measure of self-government as their loyalty, intelligence, and general circumstances warrant. The Dominions, such as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, have practically complete self-government; some of the colonies, such as the Channel Islands and Bermuda, have governments partly under their own control; yet others, like Jamaica and many colonies in Africa, are ruled, except in purely local matters, by Councils over which the crown has control. Even outside the Empire proper, Britain exercises a controlling and protecting power over vast areas such as Egypt and many other parts of Africa.

The efficient control of this vast Empire has been made possible only by the remarkable improvements of the last

century in the means of transportation and communication. Of these the most recent is the cable that, in 1902, was laid across the Pacific from Canada to Australia and New Zealand, so that to-day it is possible to send a message around the world by cable and telegraph lines touching only on British soil.

**282. The Dominion of Canada.**—When Britain obtained Canada in 1763, a famous French writer exclaimed, "Only a few thousand acres of snow." It took Britain nearly half a century to discover that her new possession had any value except as a hunting and fishing ground and a source of forest wealth. It took another half century to show that Canada would eventually include half a continent and stretch from the Atlantic to the Pacific. From the scattered colonies of 1763 has been formed, in less than one hundred and fifty years, a nation of about eight millions of self-governing people, strong in their devotion to their country, and loyal to the Empire to which they belong.

**283. The Commonwealth of Australia.**—Just when Britain was losing her Thirteen Colonies in America, she was fixing her grip upon an island continent under the Southern Cross. Captain Cook visited Australia in 1770, and although the savage natives prevented any extensive inland explorations, he claimed the whole coast-line as British territory. Convict settlements were begun in 1788. These convicts in time became free, and together with their children and free emigrants, formed the beginning of a colony. In those days men were transported from Britain for comparatively trivial offences, and these convicts were not necessarily men of vicious or criminal desires. In many cases they needed only an opportunity to become good citizens.

In 1803 Lieutenant Macarthur tried an experiment which showed that Australia was admirably adapted to sheep-farming. He brought Merino sheep from Cape Colony, and soon thousands of flocks were grazing on the hillsides. In 1851 gold was discovered, and settlers rushed in from every quarter of the globe. In 1864 Britain finally abandoned the island as a penal colony. Strong self-governing colonies were established, each with a governor from the motherland.

In 1901, largely through the efforts of Sir Henry Parkes, the six Australian colonies, New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, South Australia, West Australia, and the island of Tasmania, were united in a federal union called the Commonwealth of Australia. The population of this Commonwealth is about four millions.

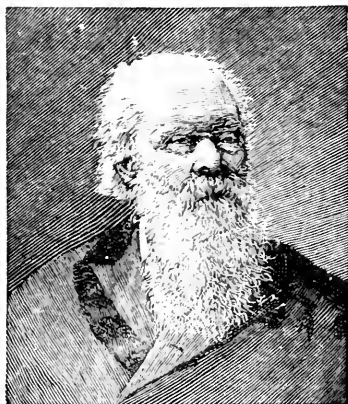
**284. The Dominion of New Zealand.**—This Dominion

consists of a group of islands situated about twelve hundred miles south-east of Australia. The first British settlements were made in 1839, and for many years afterwards the native Maoris

kept the colonists in constant alarm. In recent years there has been no conflict, and now four Maori members sit in the New Zealand Parliament. New Zealand, like Canada, is one of the self-governing Dominions. Its population is about one million.

**285. The Union of South Africa.**—It is now a century since Britain took possession of Cape Town. Gradually by conquest, by treaty with friendly natives, and by explorations, her power has grown, until her territory stretches continuously from the Cape of Good Hope to Lake Tanganyika. Throughout this large tract she has preserved order, protected the natives, and developed the resources of the country. She had a war with the fierce Zulus in 1879, one with the Boers in 1881, and another with the Boers in 1899-1902. The result has been to increase the power and obligations of Britain.

Cecil Rhodes, the founder of Rhodesia, dreamed of a great South African confederation stretching from the Cape to the equator. His dream has now been partly realized, as in 1910, the four colonies of Orange River, Transvaal,



SIR HENRY PARKES

Natal, and Cape Colony were formed into the Union of South Africa, with a government somewhat similar to that of Canada and Australia.



CECIL RHODES

Britons and Boers are now united in the one object of building up another great British Dominion in South Africa. General Louis Botha, who had commanded a Boer army in the war of 1899-1902, became the first premier. The Union of South Africa has a total population, including the native tribes, about the same as Australia, and the rich gold and diamond mines are attracting more people each year.

The protectorate of Rhodesia, lying immediately to the north of the Union of South Africa, has a population of about two millions, for the most part natives. The government of the protectorate is administered by the British South Africa Company, under the direction of a resident commissioner appointed by the crown.

**286. The Indian Empire.**—The Indian empire really dates from the battle of Plassey. The territory won by Clive for the East India Company was extended gradually, until it included the greater part of India. This extension was not accomplished, however, without many fierce contests and hard-won battles. The most dangerous of all these wars were the two with the Sikhs in 1845 and 1848, in which Sir Hugh Gough commanded the British forces. Pitt's India Bill of 1784 divided the responsibility of government between the crown and the East India Company. After the Indian Mutiny the crown assumed the whole responsibility. Such a responsibility has never before been undertaken by any government. It seems almost beyond belief that one nation, with the aid of a few thousand soldiers and civil

servants, should be able to rule a people made up of many nations and numbering three hundred millions of souls. The marvel is the greater when it is considered that the ruling nation and the subject peoples are separated by the greater part of two continents. But it is well for India that she is under British rule. Without the firm control of a guiding power, she would be torn by internal strife and exposed to the greed and trickery of powerful neighbours.

The secretary of state for India is the official through whom the Imperial government controls India. The governor-general, or Viceroy, of India carries out the instructions of the secretary of state and advises him as to the actual conditions in India. The governor-general has a Council of six members to assist him. Each councillor has control of one or more departments of government. Local matters, such as roads, bridges, fairs, markets, water-supply, education, and hospitals are under municipal Councils, for the most part consisting of natives. Schools of agriculture and great irrigation works are under the governor-general and his Council. By the Indian Council Bill of 1909, the people of India were admitted to a certain degree of freedom in the election of representatives, thus making their interest in the government of India more personal, and therefore more in the interest of the country.

The Indian empire proper consists of nine great provinces,—Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the United Province of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Burma, Eastern Bengal and Assam, the Central Provinces, and the North-Western Frontier Province—and four smaller provinces. Besides these states there are the thirteen native, or feudatory states, with a population of sixty-two millions. Over these, Britain exercises a control through a political resident, who assists the native prince. The native states are free so far as internal affairs are concerned; their external relations are wholly directed by the governor-general of India. Bhutan and Nepal are independent, but friendly to Britain. Their princes receive annual money grants from the Indian government.

The Indian army consists of seventy-eight thousand British and one hundred and fifty-eight thousand natives. This



army has been brought to a high state of service, and is being maintained up to this standard. The entire expense of the Indian army is paid by the government of India. In addition to the regular troops there are thirty-four thousand volunteers and an Imperial Service Troop of twenty thousand men, maintained by the native states.

**287. Egypt.**—Since 1882 Great Britain has been in practical control of the government of Egypt, as British protection was found to be necessary for the peace of that country. Much good has already been accomplished in the way of settling the finances of the country and in securing orderly government. An immense amount of British capital is now invested there; the great Assouan dam on the Nile is fertilizing thousands of once arid acres, and is providing a steady supply of water for thousands of farms that before produced small crops. The Cape to Cairo railway now extends up the Nile to Khartoum. Its completion in the near future will make Egypt an outlet for the wealth of Central Africa. The name of Lord Cromer, for many years the British Commissioner in Egypt, will always be associated with the good government and the expansion of the country.

**288. Newfoundland.**—This, the oldest British Dominion, discovered by Cabot in 1497, was long regarded as of importance only as a fishing station, its cod fisheries being the finest in the world. During the past twenty years the island has been carefully explored, and rich mineral deposits have been found. There are also vast areas of forest, with valleys well suited for raising hardy grains and vegetables. The French Shore difficulty was long a serious one. By the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, certain rights were granted to French fishermen. These "rights" were for years in dispute, the French claiming the exclusive right to fish along the coast from Cape Ray to Cape St. John. Britain never admitted this exclusive right, and claimed that the French attempts to prevent the establishing of British stations along the coast for mining and other purposes were outside their treaty rights.

By the Anglo-French Convention of 1904 the whole matter was amicably settled. France renounced her claim to

exclusive right, but kept for her subjects, on a footing of equality with British subjects, the right to fish along the disputed coast during the fishing season. The French were granted the privilege of securing bait from Newfoundland. Compensation was to be given those French who were established upon the shore and who by the treaty were to be removed.

Newfoundland, including Labrador, enjoys self-government. The population is about two hundred and fifty thousand.

289. **The colonies.**—The remaining British possessions are spread all over the world and are largely made up of islands. Some are valuable only for their commerce, others for their importance in war. Gibraltar commands the entrance to the Mediterranean, and is the strongest fortress in the world. It has a permanent garrison of four thousand men. Malta is a naval and coaling station, and, being on the route to India, is of first importance. Its garrison is seven thousand strong. Hong Kong, the Gibraltar of the East, is the great British centre of Chinese trade, and has a garrison of four thousand five hundred men. The Bermudas, Jamaica, Ceylon, Singapore, Southern Nigeria, and Sierra Leone, all have Imperial garrisons. Aden is a coaling station for the British fleet and is strongly fortified. Perim is a coaling station for naval vessels.

290. **The British navy.**—"On the British navy, under the good providence of God, the wealth, safety, and strength of the kingdom chiefly depend." True as this was when spoken three centuries ago by Sir Walter Raleigh, it is more emphatically true to-day. Then the inhabitants of the British Isles numbered less than six millions, and raised their own food; to-day they number forty-two millions, and would starve in a very short time if they were unable to obtain their supplies from abroad. The people of Great Britain must import the greater part of their food, and pay for it with manufactured goods sent to every corner of the earth. To protect the ships carrying her manufactures and returning with food supplies and raw materials such as cotton, wool, silk, lumber, hides, etc., a powerful navy is an



absolute necessity. Britain's navy was not created to enlarge the Empire or to overcome other nations, but to preserve British liberty and to protect British commerce.

The affairs of the navy are administered by an Admiralty Board of six members, presided over by the First Lord of the Admiralty, who is always a member of the Cabinet. Of the other members several are expert naval officers of high rank and long experience. One gives his attention wholly to planning and designing the best type of warships; another to manning them; another to keeping them in fighting order; another to transport and contracts; and yet another to coaling facilities. When it is decided to build new ships, they are built either in the government dockyards or by private contract, but in all cases under the direct supervision of Admiralty officers.

Many types of ships are built, but the chief are battleships, intended for attack; armoured cruisers, smaller ships with high speed, designed to protect commerce and for rapid movements; torpedo boats, small crafts with enormous speed, intended to launch torpedoes against the ships of the enemy; and submarines, for operations under water. The annual expenditure on the navy is about £35,000,000. In addition, in time of war, the government has the power to call into service scores of great ocean steamers now engaged in carrying passengers and freight. Many of these large vessels have guns lying ready at the naval arsenal at Woolwich, and also ready-prepared sheet armour that can be fitted on at short notice. The navy in 1910 was manned by one hundred and thirty-eight thousand men.

British naval stations, fully provided with coal and other supplies, are scattered all over the world, so that the naval vessels may move rapidly and without delay in any direction they may be sent.

**291. The British army.**—The affairs of the British army are administered by an Army Council, which consists of the Secretary of State for War and six other members, each of whom has charge of a particular department of military service. Great Britain, unlike most of the great continental nations, does not maintain a large standing army. In 1910

the regular army, not including troops serving in India, consisted of one hundred and eighty-two thousand men of all ranks, stationed in the British Isles and in the various British possessions throughout the world. In addition there was an army reserve of one hundred and thirty-four thousand men and two hundred and ten thousand territorials, or volunteers. The service is purely voluntary, no compulsion being used to make men enlist in the service. In time of war Great Britain has to depend almost entirely on the patriotism of her people both at home and in the distant parts of the Empire. To this patriotic feeling she has not yet appealed in vain, nor is it possible to think that the appeal will ever go unanswered.

## CHAPTER X

### THE IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT

**292. The sovereign.**—The British Parliament is made up of the sovereign and the Three Estates of the Realm; the Lords Spiritual, the Lords Temporal, and the Commons.

The sovereign has the authority to prorogue or dissolve Parliament, to sign or to veto bills passed by Parliament, to create peers, to pardon criminals, to declare war, to make peace, to appoint ambassadors to foreign courts, and to choose the bishops and archbishops of the established church in England. But it is now a fixed principle of British rule that the king shall do none of these things except on the advice of his Cabinet, expressed through the prime minister. The prime minister must take full responsibility for every official act of the sovereign; if he is not prepared to do so, he must resign and give place to some one who will assume such responsibility.

Although the king's prerogative is limited in this way by his Cabinet, yet his influence must always carry great weight. It has been said that a British sovereign has three rights: the right to be consulted, the right to encourage, and the right to warn. With these rights, it may easily be seen that a sovereign who has wise plans for the government of his people will have many opportunities to secure their adoption; while a sovereign whose plans are of doubtful wisdom will be held in check by experienced advisers responsible to Parliament.

**293. The House of Lords.**—The House of Lords is composed of two estates, the *Lords Spiritual* and the *Lords Temporal*. The Lords Spiritual consist of the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, together with twenty-four bishops of the established church in England. The Temporal Peers may be divided into two groups made up of those whose right to sit in the House of Lords is *limited* and those whose

right is *hereditary*. By the Act of Union between England and Scotland, it was provided that the House of Lords should contain sixteen Scottish peers. These are elected for each Parliament by the whole body of Scottish peers meeting in convocation. It thus happens that a Scottish peer may sit in the House of Lords during one Parliament and may lose that privilege during the next. By the Act of Union between Great Britain and Ireland, it was agreed that Ireland should be represented in the House of Lords by four



THE IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS AT WESTMINSTER

spiritual and twenty-eight temporal peers, each elected for life. When, however, the Irish church was disestablished, the four spiritual peers ceased to sit in the House of Lords. Those so elected are called *Irish Representative Peers*. When one of this number dies, his successor is elected from the remaining Irish peers by a system of balloting which does not require a general convocation. Both Irish and Scottish peers, who are not already members of the House of Lords, are eligible for election to the House of Commons. No additional Scottish

peers have been created since 1707, but the present law is so arranged that the Irish peerages may never fall below one hundred. The House of Lords also contains a few life peers, mostly in the persons of eminent judges, who, for various reasons, do not wish to have an hereditary peerage. There may not, however, be more than four such peers at any one time.

Peerages of the United Kingdom are hereditary, that is, the title descends to the direct male heir, whose right to a seat in the Lords is absolute. Many of the Irish and Scottish peers are also peers of the United Kingdom, and sit in the House of Lords by right of this latter peerage. The House of Lords, at the beginning of 1910, consisted of 3 royal dukes, 2 archbishops, 24 bishops, 22 dukes, 23 marquises, 124 earls, 40 viscounts, 334 barons, 16 Scottish peers, and 28 Irish peers. This number, however, is constantly changing, as new peers are from time to time created, and occasionally a peerage lapses on account of the failure of direct heirs.

The House of Lords may proceed with business if three peers are present, but a vote cannot be taken unless thirty are in the House. The Lords may propose any bills except such as involve taxation and the expenditure of money. They may, if they so decide, reject bills passed by the House of Commons. At present, however, the Lords would scarcely venture to throw out for the second time an important bill upon which the people had spoken clearly at a general election.

**294. The House of Commons.**—In the time of Queen Elizabeth the Commons consisted of 462 members. At the time of the first Reform Bill the number was 658. The present Commons contains 670 members, made up as follows: 465 from England, 30 from Wales, 72 from Scotland, and 103 from Ireland. For the purpose of the election of members of the House of Commons the United Kingdom is divided into electoral districts, so that all the electors may be represented in the fairest manner possible. Members of the House of Commons do not receive any pay for their services.

In both Lords and Commons bills must be read and voted

upon three times before they are finally passed. The first reading is commonly without discussion, the second reading involves debate and perhaps amendments, while the third reading is a final adoption or rejection of the bill as amended. All bills involving taxation and the expenditure of money must originate and must receive their final form in the House of Commons.

The Commons *adjourn* from day to day, or perhaps for a whole month. Parliament is *prorogued* by the king when the business of the session is finished. After the king *dissolves* Parliament, a general election must take place before another Parliament can meet.

295. **Cabinet government.**—It has already been explained how the few trusted advisers of the kings obtained the name of *Cabinet*. It has also been pointed out that after the accession of the House of Hanover, the kings took little part in actual government. This, of course, still further increased the importance of the king's Cabinet; in fact, made it the real ruler of the kingdom.

It is quite true that George III tried to assert the same control over his ministers as was exercised by the kings of England before the eighteenth century. It is also true that he was largely successful, but he exercised his control by choosing only such ministers as would do his bidding. He did not interfere directly with Cabinet meetings, nor make any changes in the powers of Cabinet ministers.

After the Reform Bill of 1832, Cabinet government assumed its modern form. From that time it may truly be said to be a form of government directly responsible to the people. It is, at the present time, impossible that any party can carry on the government of the country unless the Cabinet contains the men in whom a majority of the electors have confidence.

The moment the Cabinet loses the confidence of the House of Commons, it is presumed to have lost the confidence of the people, and the prime minister must at once hand his resignation to the sovereign. It is the duty of the retiring prime minister to advise the sovereign as to his successor. The sovereign, of course, may either accept or reject this

advice, and it is his undoubted right to call upon any person he may choose to undertake the formation of a government. In actual practice, however, his choice is limited to the leader of the party which has the confidence of the majority in the House of Commons, or which, in all probability, will have control after the general election. As soon as the new prime minister accepts the responsibility of forming a Cabinet, he proceeds to choose, either from the House of Lords or the House of Commons, or from both, the men whom he wishes to associate with himself in the government of the country. The names, when decided upon, are submitted to the sovereign, and, if approved by him, the men take the oath of office and assume control of their various departments. As a general rule, each member of the Cabinet presides over an important department of the public service, although this is not necessarily the case. Neither does it follow that because the head of a certain department is a member of the Cabinet, his successor will necessarily also be a member of the Cabinet. Members of the Cabinet who are members of the House of Commons, on taking office, must at once go back to their constituencies for re-election. If their course in accepting an office to which a salary is attached is approved by the electors, they will be returned; if not, they will be defeated and thus compelled to resign.

As the members of the Cabinet give their whole time to their official duties, they are paid liberal salaries. Each Cabinet minister is responsible for his own department; but any matter of general importance, such as taxation or foreign relations, is discussed and decided upon by the Cabinet as a whole. After the Cabinet has once agreed upon a certain course of action, each Cabinet minister is bound to give it his loyal support, and if any minister has any serious disagreement with his colleagues, he is in duty bound to resign. The Cabinet must be a unit upon every question of importance.

The prime minister and his Cabinet really govern the country. They decide upon what policy shall be followed, whether at home or abroad; they advise and are responsible

for every official act of the sovereign; they decide upon and arrange for all important legislation except private bills; they prepare and submit the supply bills; they administer every department of the government, and spend the money voted by Parliament. Although the people do not directly choose the members of the Cabinet, yet that body is so dependent upon a majority of the Commons that Cabinet government is truly government by the people. In no country in the world is it as certain as it is in Great Britain that the will of the people will at once take effect, and that the nation's wisest and most trustworthy men will be its rulers.



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MARY, QUEEN OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND AND  
THE BRITISH DOMINIONS BEYOND THE SEAS

# ONTARIO PUBLIC SCHOOL HISTORY OF CANADA

*AUTHORIZED BY  
THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION FOR ONTARIO*

TORONTO  
THE MACMILLAN COMPANY OF CANADA, LIMITED

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# HISTORY OF CANADA

## CHAPTER I

### THE INDIANS

1. **The Indians.**—The sight which met the eyes of the first Europeans who sailed up the St. Lawrence was a striking one, but very different from that which is seen to-day. Instead of fields covered by abundant harvests, there was almost impenetrable forest; instead of prosperous towns were seen single wigwams or a collection of smoky huts; instead of railways were narrow, winding trails, leading through the dense forest growth; instead of palatial steamers was seen an occasional bark canoe creeping silently along the shore. The changes of the last four hundred years have been marvellous. The story of these changes is unfolded in the pages that follow.

When European explorers first came to America they found the country occupied by a race of copper-coloured, black-haired people whom they called Indians. The two great families of Indians with which the story of Canada deals were the Algonquins and Huron-Iroquois. The Algonquins were widely scattered and known by many names. To this family belonged the Abenakis of Maine, the Micmacs of Acadia, the Montagnais above the St. Lawrence, the Ojibways to the north of Lake Superior, and the Crees of the far West. Of the other family the Hurons dwelt south of the Georgian Bay, and the Iroquois south of Lake Ontario. The Iroquois were sometimes called the "Five Nations," because they consisted of five tribes—Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas.

Later, after they had been joined by the Tuscaroras, the confederacy was known as the "Six Nations." West of Lake Superior dwelt a tribe called the Sioux, so like the Iroquois that they were known as the "Little Iroquois of the West."

**2. The strength of the Indian nations**—The Indian population of Canada was not, considering the size of the country, very great. By far the most numerous were the Algonquins, of whom there were about ninety thousand men, women, and children. The thirty-two villages of the Hurons contained twenty thousand. The Iroquois, powerful though they were in war, at no time mustered more than three thousand fighting men. The strength of the Five Nations, reduced by continual warfare, was recruited by a peculiar custom. When a warrior was slain, his relatives might adopt into their family one of the prisoners brought in by the war parties. The newly adopted, grateful for being saved from torture and death, became one with his captors and later fought with them even against his former kinsmen. So white men, both French and English, in this way became members of an Indian tribe, and, delighting in the freedom of forest life, refused to return to civilization, even when they had a chance to do so.

**3. Description of Indian life.**—The Algonquins were hunters, ever on the move: the Hurons and Iroquois were more settled. The former lived on game, the latter grew corn. Where the Indians settled in villages, they made many useful articles, such as earthen pots, mats woven from rushes, twine, stone axes, flint spear and arrow-heads, and bone fish-hooks. The most remarkable material, common to many tribes, was *wampum*, made at first of coloured shells, later of beads obtained from the white men. From *wampum* were made all kinds of ornaments—necklaces, collars, belts, and bracelets. *Wampum* was also used as money.

In most of the tribes the women, once they passed the period of youth, became drudges. To their lot fell the gathering of firewood, sowing, tilling, harvesting, smoking fish, dressing skins, making clothing, preparing food, and



carrying burdens. In summer and autumn the men were busy hunting, fishing, or waging war. During the remainder of the season, once their houses were built and their weapons and canoes made, they were idle. The New Year was the season of festivals. Then the warriors were idle and even the squaws had some leisure. To the village feasts the guests brought their own dishes and spoons. Seated about a huge kettle slung over the fire in the centre of the dwelling they would continue to eat often throughout a whole day. With most Indians gambling was a passion. One game of chance they played with plum stones, black on one



side and white on the other, which they tossed in a wooden bowl, betting upon the "turn-up."

All Indians were very superstitious, having strange ideas about nature. They thought that birds, beasts, and reptiles were like men. Thus an Indian has been known to make a long speech of apology to a wounded bear. They thought, too, that in lakes, rivers, and water falls dwelt the spirits of living beings, and they strove to win the favour of these by means of gifts. Dreams played an important part in the life of the Indian. They told him the cure of diseases, taught him the position and plans of his enemy, or the haunts of game. The Indian's idea of a Supreme Being

was not a high one. When he tried to think of the One who made the world, he brought Him down to the level of a man. The Indian had no one word to express the idea of God; the word *Manitou* meant anything which he thought of as having more than human power.

Such were the people whom the pioneers of our own race



INDIAN WITH TOMAHAWK  
AND PIPE

found lording it over the North American continent. In his dealings with these intruders the Indian displayed two very marked characteristics: a love of freedom and a spirit of revenge. This untamed savage of the forest could not bring himself to submit to the restraints of European life; so, as the newcomers pushed inland from the Atlantic, he withdrew farther and farther west rather than part with his beloved freedom. In the treatment of the Indians the settler was not always just, and his injustice drew down upon him the vengeful enmity of a foe that

never forgot an injury. Thus we find the early pages of Canadian history filled with the records of Indian warfare with all its horrors.

### SUMMARY

When European explorers first came to America they found the country occupied by two great families of Indians, the Algonquins and Huron-Iroquois. The Algonquins were roaming hunters: the Hurons and Iroquois were more settled in their habits. The newcomers found the Indians very superstitious, fond of their freedom, and vengeful.

## CHAPTER II

### THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

1000-1534

4. **Who discovered America?**—Who, from the Old World, first discovered this new land over which the Indian held undisputed sway? Many answers are given to this question, several nations claiming the credit. The uncertainty is due to the fact that some early navigators have left no record of their travels. Others, again, have handed down minute accounts of their voyages, describing a wild race of men, strange animals, vast forests, and mighty rivers. Unfortunately, however, a few of these, in their desire to win fame, have not written the truth. There are, therefore, many questions connected with the period of discovery which cannot be answered.

5. **The Northmen.**—The sagas, or historical tales of the Northmen—the name applied to the people of Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Iceland—tell us that as early as the year 1000 Leif Ericson, “a large man and strong, of noble aspect,” together with thirty-five of his countrymen, reached the coast of North America, landing upon the shore of Labrador or that of Newfoundland. These Vikings,—sons of the fjord,—in their “dragon” ships, with high curved bows and sterns, driven by either oars or sails, coasted south to a land of great trees which they called Markland (woodland), probably Nova Scotia. A few days’ sail from this place brought them to a shore overgrown with grape-vines, to which they gave the name of Vineland. Another saga tells us of a rich Northman who founded a colony in Vineland, bringing over settlers and cattle, and beginning a trade in furs with the natives. Of these early visitors to America no trace remains.

6. **The treasures of the East.**—Towards the close of the fifteenth century the nations of Europe began to take an interest in the outside world, and voyages of discovery became very common. Wherever a new land was discovered, there people went to trade. The country to which the eyes of European merchants most eagerly turned was India—the land of silks and spices, of gold and precious stones. The old caravan route from the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf was made laborious by the long stretches of desert, and dangerous by the hostility of the Turks. On this account mariners kept seeking a sea route to India. Stories were brought home by travellers in the East telling of the wonderful wealth of India and the island of Cipango (Japan). Gold, rumour said, was so plentiful that the royal palaces were covered with it. These stories spurred on the work of exploration, which was at this time made much easier by the invention of the mariner's compass. "Its trembling finger led men to dare the deeps of ocean in a way they never ventured to do before."

7. **Christopher Columbus.**—The most famous seamen of the age were the Portuguese, who had already visited many of the islands of the Atlantic, and were now trying to reach India by sailing around the Cape of Good Hope. With one of the Portuguese expeditions was a Genoese youth whose name has since become renowned the world over. Christopher Columbus early showed a strong liking for the study of geography and for a sea-faring life—a liking which led him to take service as a mariner at the age of fourteen. His dream was to find India by water, and this he purposed to do by sailing due west. For ages men had thought of the world as flat, and of the ocean as a great river flowing around it; but Columbus declared that the earth was round, and that by holding a westerly course he would reach India. Nor were there lacking, even at that time, traditions of a western land, which some Portuguese sailors were said to have sighted.

So little did men believe in the new idea of a round world, that Columbus had great difficulty in securing ships and men for his voyage. While his brother sought aid from the

kings of England and France, he himself visited the courts of southern Europe. Finally he met with success at the Spanish court, Queen Isabella pledging her crown jewels to raise money for the undertaking. Three small caravels were fitted out, and manned with one hundred and twenty men, most of them criminals set free for the purpose. On Friday, August 3rd, 1492, the tiny fleet put out from the port of Palos into the unknown ocean. One night, about seventy days later, the welcome cry of "land" was heard. In the morning light the richly wooded shore of one of the Bahamas rose

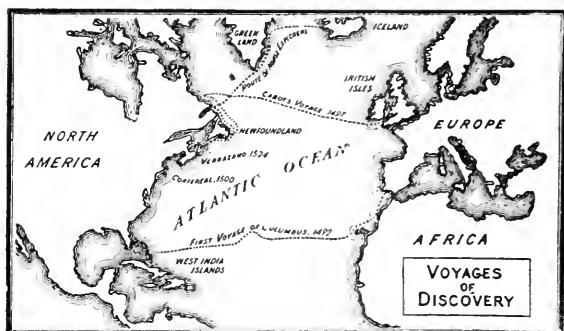


THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS

to view. The Europeans gazed in amazement upon a wonderful land of strange trees, plants, and animals, upon the copper-coloured savages who crowded eagerly to the water's edge. The astonishment of the natives may well be imagined. They saw in the fair complexion and strange costumes of the Spaniards, "children of the sun" come down to visit the world. The Old World had met the New, and the era of American history had dawned.

8. **The north-west passage.**—The veil of mystery overhanging the western ocean had partly lifted. Columbus

had pointed the way, and there were many to imitate his daring example. Voyage followed voyage, some in the



track of the great discoverer, others striking new courses to the north-west. Although India was still far distant, yet a new world had been discovered, the resources of which were ample to satisfy the ambition of explorers and the greed of fortune hunters. Nor did the knowledge that a barrier lay between them and India discourage those who sought that land of promise, for they still hoped to reach their goal by way of a north-west passage. For centuries the finding of this passage was to be the dream of bold mariners, and was to cost the world dear in ships and men.

9. **The Cabots.**—Among those whom the success of Columbus fired with a zeal for western exploration were John Cabot and his son Sebastian. The Cabots were of a Venetian family, which had moved to England and settled in the stirring seaport town of Bristol. In 1497 John Cabot, who had devoted himself to the study of geography, and who was, moreover, a keen merchant, succeeded in obtaining from Henry VII a charter granting trading privileges. His ambition was twofold—"to bring back so many fish that England will have no more business with Iceland," and to find a north-west passage to India. Needless to say the latter was the desire dear to the heart of Cabot; yet he, like Columbus, was doomed to disappointment.

It was no Eldorado that this daring sailor reached, but

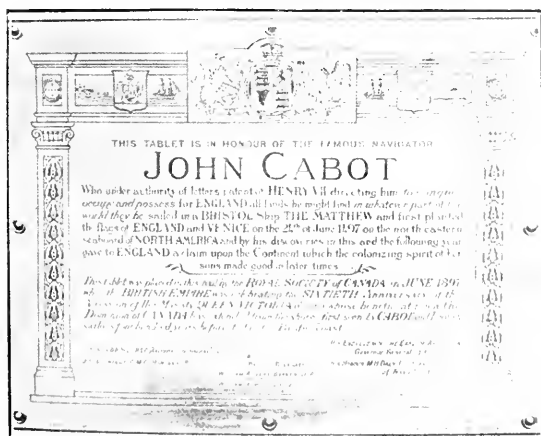
the bleak coast of Labrador, or, as some think, the rock-bound shore of Newfoundland. It is said that he heard the inhabitants of this new land speak of "Baccalaos"—the Basque for "cod"; and from this fact some men judge that even before this time French fishermen had visited these distant shores.

Cabot, upon his return to England, found himself in high favour. He had been the first to touch upon the mainland of North America. From the king he received, in recognition of his services, the rather modest reward of ten pounds, given to "Hym that founde the new ile." Sebastian Cabot had accompanied his father upon the first voyage, and in the following



SEBASTIAN CABOT

year they together made a second visit to the New World, this time following the coast southwards, some say to Cape Cod. A few years later Sebastian Cabot made a third expedition, in



THE CABOT TABLET AT HALIFAX

a vain attempt to find the north-west passage.

Though the Cabot voyages had failed to reveal a new

route to India, yet they resulted in a very real gain to England. In the first place, they opened up to English merchants an industry which has proved of permanent value. The gold mines of the much-sought East might fail, but not so the shoals of fish that clung to the Banks of Newfoundland. In the second place, the long-continued search for the north-west passage, begun by the two seamen of Bristol, together with the hardships and dangers of the cod fisheries, produced a race of hardy and daring seamen.

**10. Cortereal and Verrazano.**—Portugal and France also shared in the exploration of the new-found continent. In 1500 Cortereal, representing the former country, visited the coasts which the Cabots had traced. In 1524 Verrazano, under orders from the king of France, traced the coast from Carolina to Nova Scotia.

**11. The name of the new continent.**—Thus were the shores of the new continent visited by Europeans, who, clinging to the hope of finding India, explored the coast-line piece by piece. The land might well have derived its name from that of the dauntless mariner who first crossed the broad Atlantic, but this was not to be. The name of one Amerigo Vespucci, who, after paying several visits to the West, wrote an account of his wanderings, has been preserved in that of a great continent.

## SUMMARY

According to the historical tales of the Northmen, Leif Ericson landed upon the coast of Labrador as early as the year 1000, and sailed south along the shores of Nova Scotia. Towards the close of the fifteenth century the nations of Europe, seeking a new route to India and Japan, discovered the continent of America. Christopher Columbus, the first of the discoverers, landed upon one of the Bahama Islands in 1492. A few years later the Cabots, sailing from England, reached Newfoundland. Further discoveries were made by Cortereal and Verrazano, the former representing Portugal, the latter France.



## CHAPTER III

### JACQUES CARTIER

1534-1603

12. **Cartier's first voyage, 1534.**—From the old seaport of St. Malo, on the coast of France, many a bold sailor had ventured the perils of the sea, but none bolder than Jacques Cartier, who, in April, 1534, commanding two tiny vessels, laid his course for the land which Verrazano had visited. Cartier was to take possession of all lands in the name of France, seek for minerals and furs, and, if possible, find a way through to Cathay (China). After a safe passage of the Atlantic, Cartier entered the Strait of Belle Isle and coasted along the bleak shores of Labrador, barren enough, he thought, "to be the land allotted of God to Cain." Leaving this uninviting region, he sailed south across the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and, searching for an opening into the mainland, finally entered what he called La Baie de Chaleur (the Bay of Heat).



JACQUES CARTIER

Here Indians came flocking to the shore to see the strange intruders. "We," says the explorer in his account of the voyage, "sent two men ashore with hatchets and knives, beads and other merchandise, at which they showed great joy. Then they came in a crowd in their boats to where we were, with skins and whatever they had, to obtain our

wares. We saw that they were people whom it would be easy to convert." From this point Cartier followed the coast north-westwards and landed at Gaspé. Here he erected a huge wooden cross, thirty feet in height, bearing the inscription, "Long live the King of France," thus claiming the surrounding country in the name of his sovereign. From Gaspé the homeward voyage was begun, but not before two sons of a native chief were enticed on board and persuaded to visit France.

**13. The second voyage, 1535-1536.**—So great was the interest aroused in France by the story of his experiences, that Cartier was able, in the following year, to fit out a fleet of three vessels for a second voyage. Again he passed through the Strait of Belle Isle and entered the great gulf. This time the explorer held a westerly course, passing the island of Anticosti. Piloted by the two Indians whom he had brought back with him from France, he ascended the St. Lawrence to an island covered with vines, "such," he says, "as we had never before seen." Here the natives came swarming about the ships, the bolder even on to the decks, eager to hear the wonderful stories of their restored countrymen. "They showed their joy, danced, and performed various antics." Cartier gladly accepted the invitation of their chief, Donnacona, to visit the village of Stadacona, a mere cluster of wigwams upon the ground now occupied by the city of Quebec.

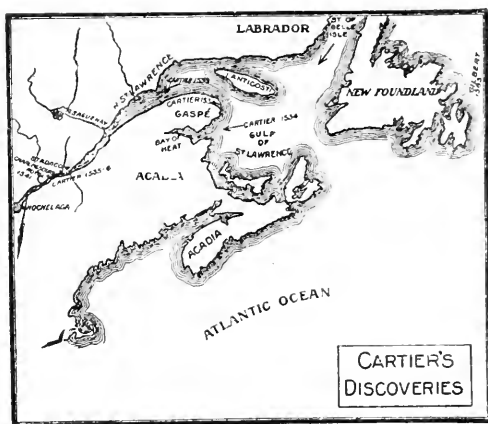
Farther up the river Cartier came upon a large settlement, the town of Hochelaga, situated at the base of a picturesque mountain, upon the site of the present city of Montreal. The place was strongly fortified with a triple row of tree trunks, the outer and inner crossing at the top. Within were as many as fifty oblong dwellings about fifty yards in length and fifteen in width, each accommodating several families. In the heart of the town there was a public square. Here the strangers were beset by a throng of children and women, who touched their beards, felt their faces, and gazed in wonder upon their strange dress and weapons. They brought to the French leader all their sick and maimed. "as if," he says, "a

god had come down to cure them." Before leaving, Cartier climbed the mountain, which he called Mont Royal, and from its lofty summit viewed the surrounding country. The party then returned to Stadacona, when preparations were made to spend what proved to be a very trying winter. Added to the suffering from cold and hunger, and to the danger of Indian treachery, were the ravages of scurvy, which carried off twenty-five men. In the spring Cartier returned to France, taking with him Donnacona and several of his chiefs.

**14. The third voyage, 1541-1542.**—It was not until May, 1541, that the great explorer again sought the shores of the St. Lawrence. The king had granted a commission to one of his noblemen, Sieur de Roberval, under whom Cartier was to act as captain-general. Roberval's object was not only to discover new lands, but also to found a settlement, and to convert the natives. Impatient of the delay caused by the difficulty of obtaining supplies for the fleet, Cartier set sail alone, and at the close of a stormy voyage dropped anchor off Stadacona. To the Indians' inquiries for their kidnapped chiefs, who had all died in France, Cartier admitted that Donnacona was dead, but falsely reported that the others had married and settled down in France. The Indians were by no means satisfied, and from this time became still more unfriendly to their treacherous visitors. Proceeding about ten miles further up the river, the Frenchmen began to make preparations for a permanent settlement. Trees were cleared away, forts built, and some seeding was done.

Disappointed at the delay of the fleet, Cartier, in the spring of 1542, abandoned the new colony, known as Charlesbourg Royal. Off the coast of Newfoundland he fell in with Roberval, who had just arrived with three ships and two hundred colonists. In defiance of an order to turn back, the captain-general escaped in the night and sailed for the coast of France, leaving his chief to continue alone the voyage to Charlesbourg Royal. Here a huge, castle-like structure was now erected, containing great halls, kitchens, chambers, and workshops, spacious enough to house the

whole colony. Provisions, however, soon ran short, and disease made inroads into the ranks of the unfortunate colonists, with the result that in the summer of the following year the ill-starred colony was again abandoned.



The fate of Roberval is shrouded in mystery. One writer would have us believe that he sailed up the Saguenay in

quest of a "kingdom of jewels," and that he never again emerged from the lofty portals of that gloomy stream. From a more trustworthy source we learn that this unfortunate colonizer met death by violence one night in the heart of Paris. Fortune dealt more kindly with Cartier, who passed the closing years of an eventful life amid the quiet of his old manor-house near St. Malo.

**15. English seamen of the sixteenth century.**—With these failures in colonization active interest in the interior of Canada practically ceased during the sixteenth century. Among Englishmen, however, it was the day of famous seamen, who continued to haunt the coasts of the western continent. The north-west passage was still the object of search. To find this, Martin Frabisher made three voyages, and John Davis as many more, but all to no purpose.

In 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert took formal possession of Newfoundland in the name of Queen Elizabeth, and made the first attempt to plant an English colony in the New World. From the outset, misfortune followed the enterprise. One ship was forced by the outbreak of disease

among its crew to put back to England, while a second was wrecked off the rocky coast of Newfoundland. Finally, the colony was abandoned. Upon the homeward voyage Sir Humphrey, who sailed on board the *Squirrel*, a small craft of ten tons burden, went down in a storm. His last words—"Courage, my lads! Heaven is as near by sea as by land"—show how gallantly he died.

### SUMMARY

The king of France took a keen interest in the newly discovered land. Under his command Jacques Cartier made a successful voyage in 1534, entering the St. Lawrence and landing at Gaspé. In the following year Cartier again sailed up the St. Lawrence, on this occasion discovering the Indian towns of Stadacona and Hochelaga, which stood upon the sites of Quebec and Montreal. Cartier's third voyage was not successful. Towards the close of the sixteenth century Sir Humphrey Gilbert took possession of Newfoundland in the name of Queen Elizabeth.

## CHAPTER IV

### EARLY SETTLEMENTS

#### THE ACADIAN SETTLEMENT, 1603-1613

16. **The French neglect Canada.**—For half a century after the voyages of Cartier, France, being fully occupied with civil wars, took little interest in the new land to which she had laid claim. Yet the fishing banks of Newfoundland were frequented by seamen of France, as well as by those of Spain, Portugal, and England. For a time, as many as two vessels a day sailed from French ports for the scene of the fisheries, and upon one occasion there were fully one hundred and fifty French ships off the Banks. Gradually these men of the sea were attracted to the land by the profits of the fur trade. Soon rude huts appeared, dotting the island of Anticosti and the mainland, where these enterprising foreigners carried on with the natives a trade in bear and beaver skins. In exchange they gave knives, hatchets, cloth, brandy, beads, and trinkets of various kinds.

17. **Failures in colonization.**—Towards the close of the sixteenth century, the Marquis de la Roche approached the French king with an offer to colonize New France in return for control of the fur trade. This undertaking ended in complete failure. A like fate befell a colony which Pontgravé, a merchant of St. Malo, planted at the mouth of the Saguenay. Henceforth the fur trade of Canada was controlled by companies, to each of which in turn the king granted a monopoly.

18. **Samuel de Champlain.**—In 1603 the work of exploration was taken up by a man whose services to the country have won for him the proud title of "Father of New France." Samuel de Champlain, although only thirty-six years of age, had already acquired considerable experience in war

and travel. We are told that his "purse was small, his merit great," a fact readily reconciled with the spirit of adventure which drew him to the new continent.

It was in company with Pontgravé that Champlain first visited Canada. A great change had come over the shores of the St. Lawrence. Where in Cartier's day bands of Indians had peopled Stadacona and Hochelaga, all was solitude; only a few wandering Algonquins were to be found.

In 1604 Sieur de Monts, a gentleman of influence at the French court, obtained leave from the king to colonize Acadia, a country which included the present provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, together with part of the state of Maine. A monopoly of the fur trade was of course granted by the crown, but it was clearly stated that the task of christianizing the natives should be undertaken. It was a motley company that crowded the decks of the two ships set apart for the expedition: thieves and ruffians, forced on board, mingled with volunteers of good station in life, and in command were Sieur de Monts, Baron de Poutrincourt, and Champlain.



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN

The newcomers first settled at the mouth of the St. Croix, but at the end of the first season moved to Port Royal. In their new settlement the colonists were joined by one Marc L'Escarbot, a Parisian lawyer, who, having lost a lawsuit, was anxious "to fly from a corrupt world," and was quite in the mood for adventure. To this man, both poet and historian, we are indebted for one of the best pictures we have of early settlement in America. During the following winter the colonists, comfortably housed in a quadrangle of wooden buildings, passed the months of confinement with no little enjoyment. Ample supplies had been provided by

De Monts, each man having even his three pints of wine daily.

The fifteen leading men of the colony, who sat at Poutrincourt's table, organized "The Order of the Good Time." Each in turn was grand-master, holding office for one day, on which it was his duty to provide for the company's entertainment. For a week before, he might be found fishing, hunting, or bartering with the Indians. Moose, beaver, otter, hare, duck, geese, plover, sturgeon, and trout were the usual fare. The Indian chiefs were the invited guests, while humbler warriors, squaws, and children sat about the floor awaiting their share of the good things of the feast. 'Twas a pleasant winter these merry Frenchmen spent together; but spring brought disappointment in the news that De Monts had lost his charter. Port Royal had to be abandoned. In 1610, however, Poutrincourt revived the Acadian settlement and, with the aid of the Jesuits, undertook actively the task of christianizing the Indians.

19. **The English destroy Port Royal, 1613.**—Soon a new danger threatened the little colony. In 1607 an English settlement had been founded upon the banks of the James River in Virginia. Six years later, Samuel Argall of Jamestown, while cruising about the Bay of Fundy with three small vessels, came suddenly upon the French colony. The commander and most of his men happened to be absent on a visit to the neighbouring Indians, while the remaining colonists were at work in the fields some distance away. Argall's men, after destroying all the animals and plundering the buildings, set fire to the place. This disaster proved a death-blow to Poutrincourt's hopes, and it was many years before the French tried again to make a settlement in Acadia.

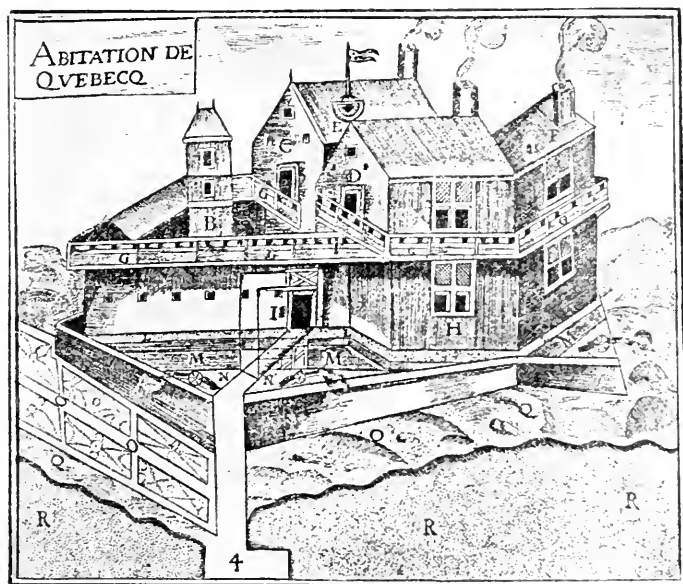
## SUMMARY

For fifty years after the voyages of Cartier, France took little interest in Canada. However, in 1604, a colony was planted at Port Royal by Sieur de Monts, Poutrincourt and Champlain. The colony was abandoned for a time, but was afterwards revived. It was destroyed in 1613 by the English.



## CHAMPLAIN'S INDIAN WARS, 1608-1610

20. Champlain on the St. Lawrence.—Meanwhile, Champlain, who had returned to Paris, was dreaming of the New World and its hidden mysteries. He was convinced that somewhere upon the banks of the St. Lawrence was the ideal site of a settlement from which the unknown interior



CHAMPLAIN'S PLAN OF QUEBEC IN 1608

*A*, Storehouse; *B*, Dovecote; *C*, Workmen's Lodgings and Armoury; *D*, Lodgings for Mechanics; *E*, Dial; *F*, Blacksmith's Shop and Workmen's Lodgings; *G*, Galleries; *H*, Champlain's Residence; *I*, Gate and Drawbridge; *J*, Walk; *K*, Platform for Cannon; *L*, Moat; *M*, Garden; *N*, Kitchen; *O*, Vacant Space; *R*, St. Lawrence River.

might be explored and perhaps a route to China found. By the many streams, too, pouring their waters into the St. Lawrence, the fur-laden canoes of distant Indian tribes might make their way to the new capital. But to Cham-

plain, in whose eyes "the saving of a soul was worth more than the conquest of an empire," another thought was dear, namely, the winning of the wild, untamed natives from their state of cruel savagery.

Such were the thoughts of Champlain as, in 1608, he dropped anchor off the site of Stadacona. Here, between the river and the overhanging cliffs, he purposed to establish his headquarters. Without delay axe-men were set to work, and a few weeks saw the completion of several buildings, surrounded by a strong, wooden wall with a platform for cannon; the whole was encircled by a moat. Such was the birth of the now historic city of Quebec.

**21. Indian wars.**—The arrival in the spring of fresh supplies from France encouraged Champlain to continue his explorations, which, he hoped, would bring him at last to the long-sought China. An obstacle, however, stood in his way—the fear of Indian attack. To accomplish his object he formed an alliance with the Hurons and Algonquins against their deadly enemies, the Iroquois.

In June, Champlain and a few of his followers ascended the St. Lawrence to join their new allies. Many of the latter had never before seen white men, and gazed in amazement upon the steel armour and death-breathing firearms of the wonderful strangers. Arriving at the mouth of the Iroquois River, as the Richelieu was then called, they turned into the tributary stream. The sixty warriors of the party, manning twenty-four canoes, proceeded in orderly array. A few went on in advance of the main body to keep watch for the enemy, while others on the flanks and in the rear hunted for game to support the little army. The allies had entered Lake Champlain, so named in honour of their leader, when suddenly one night about ten o'clock they caught sight of a fleet of Iroquois canoes gliding in their direction. Both parties landed and prepared for the fight which took place on the next day.

The fight, as described by Champlain himself, was a strange one. "I looked at them," he says, "and they looked at me. When I saw them getting ready to shoot their arrows at us, I levelled my arquebus, which I had loaded with four balls

and aimed straight at one of their chiefs. The shot brought down *two* and wounded another. The Iroquois were greatly astonished and frightened to see two of their men killed so quickly, in spite of their arrow-proof armour. As I was reloading, one of my companions fired a shot from the woods, which so increased their astonishment that, seeing their chiefs dead, they abandoned the field and fled into the depth of the forest."

In the following year, Champlain with his allies again met the Iroquois, this time near the mouth of the Richelieu, and again the dreaded firearms won the day. The Hurons were now eager to have Champlain return home with them, but he refused, having heard that the trading rights of his company had been withdrawn. This misfortune made it necessary for him to return to France to seek a new charter.

### SUMMARY

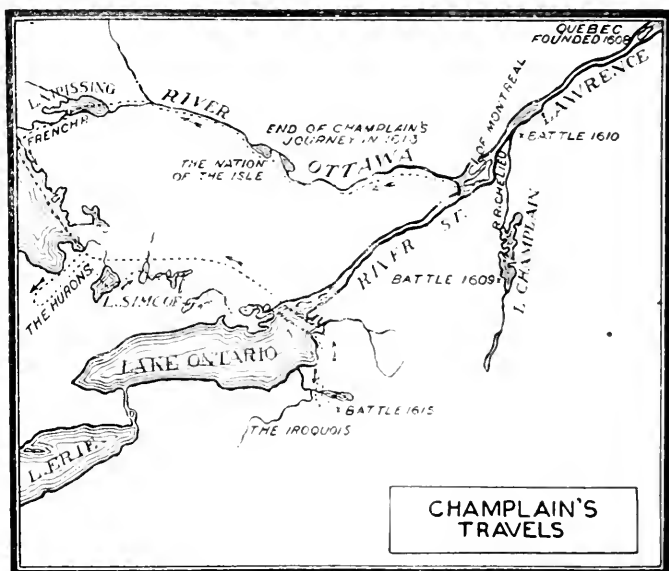
In 1608 Champlain founded Quebec. He was forced to take part in the Indian wars, taking the side of the Hurons and Algonquins against the Iroquois.

### CHAMPLAIN'S EXPLORATIONS, 1610-1616.

**22. Champlain ascends the Ottawa, 1613.**—While in Paris, Champlain was visited by a young man named Nicolas de Vignau. Vignau told a wonderful story of how, in the previous year, he had ascended the Ottawa and had discovered a lake at its head-waters; how he had crossed this and descended another river to the sea; and how there he had seen the wreck of an English ship lying upon the shore. So convincing was this tale that Champlain, early in the spring of 1613, returned to Canada, chose two Indians and four Frenchmen, including Vignau, and with an equipment of two canoes pushed his way up the Ottawa. The adventurers had reached the point where the Ottawa dividing, encircles the Ile des Allumettes, when they learned from a local chief that Vignau had told a false story, and that he had never reached the upper waters of the Ottawa. Bitterly

disappointed, Champlain gave up his enterprise and returned to the St. Lawrence, and thence to France.

23. **The Recollet friars.**—Champlain's dearest object was to christianize the Indians, who were living "like brute beasts, without faith, without law, without religion, without God." In 1615, therefore, he brought out with him to Canada three friars of the Récollet order, Denis Jamay, Jean Dolbeau, and Joseph le Caron, and the lay brother, Pacifique du Plessis. The newcomers lost no time in setting



to work. While Jamay and Du Plessis remained at Quebec, Dolbeau followed the wandering Montagnais to their northern hunting-ground. Father Le Caron, attended by twelve armed Frenchmen, set out for the distant land of the Hurons. The route was by the Ottawa River. "It would be hard to tell you," writes Le Caron, "how tired I was with paddling all day, with all my strength, among the Indians; wading the rivers a hundred times and more, through the mud and over the

sharp rocks that cut my feet; carrying the canoe and luggage through the woods to avoid the rapids and frightful cataracts; and half starved all the while, for we had nothing to eat but a little *sagamite*, a sort of porridge of water and pounded maize."

24. **Champlain with the Hurons, 1615-1616.**—Close behind Le Caron came Champlain with a party including ten Indians, an interpreter, and one other Frenchman. His course lay up the Ottawa and Mattawan rivers, through Lake Nipissing, down the French River, and across Georgian Bay. In the chief town of the Hurons, Champlain had the great joy of meeting Le Caron, whose was the honour of saying the first mass in the land of the Hurons.

Champlain had scarcely begun to visit the Huron towns when he was asked to join in a raid upon the Iroquois. By a chain of lakes and rivers the war party reached Lake Ontario, which was crossed not far from its eastern end. Champlain taught his followers how to construct a movable wooden tower, from the top of which they could shoot over the fortifications of the enemy. He also showed them how to protect themselves with shields of wickerwork and skins. Failing to follow these instructions, the besiegers exposed themselves rashly and were again repulsed. Finally, losing faith in their great French captain, "the man with the iron breast," as they called him, they beat a cowardly retreat, which became a panic-stricken flight before the pursuit of the victorious enemy. Champlain, who had been wounded, was carried back to the Huron settlement. In the spring he at last returned to Quebec, where his friends, who had received from Indians a report of his death, welcomed him as one returned from the dead.

### SUMMARY

Champlain ascended the Ottawa River in 1613. His dearest wish was to christianize the Indians, and in this he was assisted by the friars of the Récollet order. In 1615 he visited the Huron country and led an unsuccessful attack against the Iroquois.

## THE LAST DAYS OF CHAMPLAIN, 1627-1635

25. **The fur trade retards growth of the settlement.**—Exploration and Indian warfare were now of the past in Champlain's experience: Hereafter he was to devote himself to the task of building up the weak colony which he had founded some nine years before. Montreal, Three Rivers, and Tadousac were but trading-stations, occupied during part of the year only, while Quebec, still the chief centre of population, boasted no more than fifty or sixty inhabitants; nor was there any good hope of an increase of population. The fur traders, although, as a company, pledged to promote settlement, did all they could to retard it. It was to the interest of the fur trade that the population should continue small, and the land uncultivated. Champlain, however, did everything in his power to encourage settlement.

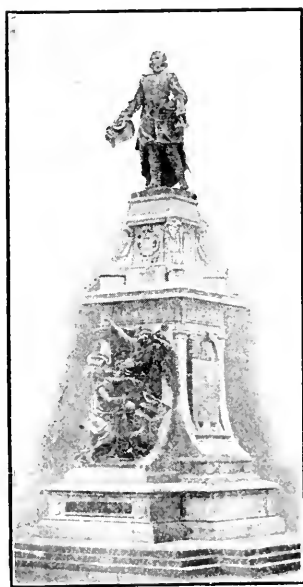
26. **The Hundred Associates.**—In 1627 the famous French statesman, Cardinal Richelieu, became aware of the wretched state of New France. Under his direction all existing trading privileges were withdrawn, and a new organization was formed, consisting of the Hundred Associates, sometimes called the Company of New France. A perpetual monopoly of the fur trade was granted, together with control of all other commerce for a period of fifteen years. The New France to which this monopoly applied included Canada, Acadia, Newfoundland, and even Florida. The Company, on its part, was bound to bring out two or three hundred settlers at once, and, within the next fifteen years, to raise the number to four thousand. They were to lodge and support these settlers for three years, and at the end of that time to give them cleared land.

27. **Kirke takes Quebec, 1629.**—Early in the spring of 1628, the Company sent out four vessels bearing colonists and supplies. About the same time there sailed from an English port a fleet of three ships commanded by David Kirke. Meanwhile, the inhabitants of Quebec, being short of provisions, were anxiously looking for aid from France. At length word was brought that a strange fleet was anchor-

ed off Tadousac, and later that the ships of the Hundred Associates were advancing up the St. Lawrence. Champlain, who was lieutenant-governor, was in command at Quebec, and knowing that an encounter of the two fleets was inevitable, waited anxiously for the appearance of friends or foes; but neither came. Some time later the Indians brought him news of what had happened. Kirke had met and overpowered the provision ships, and then, fearing to attack Quebec, had sailed away. Kirke in the following year again entered the St. Lawrence, and from the Saguenay sent on three ships commanded by his two brothers to capture the French stronghold. Champlain, whose garrison had been reduced to a starved and ragged band of sixteen, was forced to surrender.

**28. The last days of Champlain.**—Not long did England hold Canada, for, by the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, Charles I, who was in sore need of money and was at war with his Parliament, restored the country to France for the paltry sum of \$240,000. In the following year the Company of the Hundred Associates, with Champlain at its head, again entered into its possessions. For two years Champlain continued to direct affairs at Quebec, faithfully discharging his duties both to the Company and to the crown. But his end was near at hand.

On Christmas Day, 1635, Champlain died in the city he had founded. The deeds of this distinguished Frenchman, in war, in exploration, and in colonization, have won for him



CHAMPLAIN'S MONUMENT  
AT QUEBEC

an honourable place in the memory of Canadians. A romantic spirit of adventure, coupled with a fervent zeal for the saving of souls, made light of treacherous rapids, the lurking dangers of pathless forest, and the haunting terrors of Iroquois vengeance. History has no greater tribute to pay to the memory of Champlain than to record that he founded the oldest city of Canada, and that he fostered its infant life during the years when the greed of the fur traders threatened every effort at colonization. Such unselfish devotion to the best interests of his country has given him the title, "Father of New France."

### SUMMARY

In 1627 the Company of One Hundred Associates was given control of the fur trade on condition that, within fifteen years, they would bring from France four thousand settlers. In 1629 Quebec was captured by the English, but was soon restored to France. In 1635 Champlain died.

### PROGRESS OF ACADIA, 1613-1667

29. **Charles de la Tour.**—After the destruction of Port Royal by Argall, Poutrincourt returned to France. His son Biencourt and a few companions, among whom was Charles de la Tour, refusing to leave the country, settled at Fort Louis near Cape Sable. When Biencourt died, he left all his rights in Acadia to Charles de la Tour, who had been his personal friend from boyhood.

30. **The "Baronets" of Nova Scotia.**—About this time the attention of some prominent men in England was drawn to Acadia. One of these, Sir William Alexander, conceived the idea of planting a colony there. From the king he secured, in 1621, a grant of Acadia, which he renamed Nova Scotia. An order of Nova Scotian "baronets" was created, who were to undertake the settlement each of his "barony." But little came of Sir William's elaborate plan.

31. **The Charnisay—La Tour feud.**—The treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye restored Acadia to the French, and thereafter the latter took an increased interest in the colony. Isaac de Razilly, a distinguished military man, was sent



out as governor of all Acadia; and with him as deputy came Charnisay. From the very outset Charnisay and Charles de la Tour were rivals, and their rivalry became all the keener after the death of Razilly. Charnisay, succeeding to his late chief's power, removed the seat of government from La Hève, where Razilly had established it, to Port Royal. His rival had also moved from Cape Sable to the mouth of the St. John River. Here the latter had erected a strong fort, from which he carried on a profitable trade with the neighbouring Indian tribes.

A bitter feud set in between La Tour and Charnisay, which was ended only by the accidental death of the latter. On hearing the news of Charnisay's death, La Tour immediately proceeded to France. The king, acknowledging that he had been unfairly treated, made him governor of Acadia. Upon his return to Port Royal he married, strange to say, the widow of the man who had persecuted him so bitterly, "to secure the peace and tranquillity of the country, and concord and union between the two families."

**32. Acadia changes hands twice.**—Acadia was not long to enjoy peace. In 1654 an English fleet, which was lying idle in Boston harbour, was pressed by some New Englanders into an expedition against Port Royal. Without a struggle the whole country passed into the possession of England, and even the staunch La Tour placed himself under English protection, becoming Sir Charles de la Tour. This Acadian hero spent the remainder of his life in the land of his choice, and died only a year before the treaty of Breda was concluded, in 1667, restoring Acadia to France. At this time the population of Acadia numbered four hundred and ten.

## SUMMARY

Sir William Alexander secured from the king of England a grant of Nova Scotia, and made an unsuccessful attempt to create an order of Nova Scotia baronets. The restoration of Acadia to France ushered in a bitter feud between Charnisay and La Tour. In 1654 Acadia was once more seized by the English, only to be again restored by the treaty of Breda in 1667.

## CHAPTER V

### THE FOUNDING OF MONTREAL

1635-1645

33. **The Associates fail to settle the country.**—Champlain was succeeded in the governorship of Canada by Charles de Montmagny. With the new governor came several families to swell the population of the young colony. The reinforcement was sorely needed, as even some years later Quebec did not contain more than two hundred people. Most of these were servants of the company, priests, or nuns, very few being actual settlers. The surrounding country was still a wilderness, as no real attempt at farming had yet been made. The Associates, more interested in the fur trade than in settlement, had failed to carry out the terms of their contract. Instead of directly providing a population, they granted large tracts of land to private persons on condition that they would furnish settlers to clear and till the soil. There was nothing to induce the settler to come out to Canada. He could trade with the Indians only on condition that he sold his furs to the company at its own price. He was not allowed to fish. For several years, until he succeeded in cultivating the soil for himself, he was dependent upon the company even for his food.

34. **The Jesuits.**—Apart from the fur trade the life of the colony centred in missions, convents, schools, and hospitals. The Récollets, the first religious order upon the scene, were now gone; but the work well begun by them was taken up actively by the Jesuits. The latter founded at Quebec a school for Huron boys. So great was the interest aroused in France by the Jesuit accounts of the missionary work, that there was no lack of volunteers to take it up.

35. **The founding of Montreal, 1642.**—A French nobleman, with pious zeal, resolved to found a new order of

nurses, and to build a hospital on the island of Montreal. Sieur de Maisonneuve was the man he chose to carry out this charitable project. Governor Montmagny, fearing that the proposed settlement would prove a dangerous rival to Quebec, attempted to dissuade its promoters from their purpose by pointing out the danger of Indian attacks. But the fearless answer of Maisonneuve was characteristic of the man. "I have not come here," he said, "to deliberate, but to act. It is my duty and my honour to found a colony at Montreal, and I would go, if every tree were an Iroquois." It was in May of 1642 that this chivalrous gentleman, accompanied by two pious women, Madame de la Peltrie and Mademoiselle Mance, ascended the St. Lawrence and landed upon the shore of that already historic island which Cartier had discovered, and which Champlain had fixed upon as a strategic trading-point. Tents were pitched and camp-fires lighted, and amid this simple scene of pioneer life, the city of Montreal had its beginning.

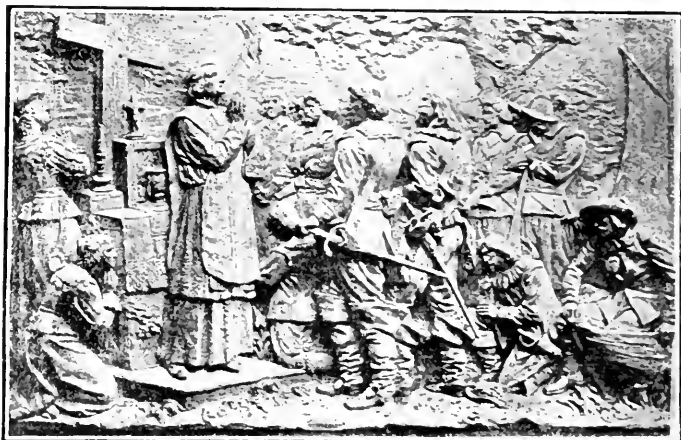


SIEUR DE MAISONNEUVE

It was now thirty-two years since Champlain had joined in an attack upon the Iroquois. All these years the latter had nursed their enmity. From the Dutch traders, who made Albany their headquarters, they had secured fire-arms, like those which at first had so terrified them. And now all classes in Canada—settlers, traders, and Indians—were made the object of their murderous attacks. Early in the spring they would leave their villages, in small or large bands, and sweep down Lake Champlain and the Richelieu. Upon the St. Lawrence and Ottawa they stopped the canoes of the Hurons on their way to or from the fur market at Quebec. The Algonquins beyond the St. Lawrence, even in the distant hunting-grounds of the north,

were not safe from these tireless foes. The position of the unfortunate colonists was most distressing. "At Quebec, Three Rivers, Montreal, and the little fort on the Richelieu, that is to say in all Canada, no man could hunt, fish, till the fields, or cut a tree in the forest, without peril to his scalp. The Iroquois were everywhere and nowhere. A yell, a volley of bullets, a rush of screeching savages, and all was over. The soldiers hastened to the spot to find silence, solitude, and a mangled corpse."

Montreal, which the French hoped to make the centre



THE FIRST MASS AT MONTREAL

of an agricultural district, enjoyed a period of security as long as its existence was unknown to the Iroquois. Unfortunately the enemy, in pursuit of a small band of Algonquins who were seeking a refuge, discovered the new colony. All feeling of security was then at an end. The men went out to the fields in strong parties, fully armed, and worked with their firearms close at hand. Danger lurked on every hand. A single Iroquois warrior would lie hidden for days, in the hope of cutting off some careless straggler. Again, a band of a hundred Indians would lay an ambushade for the whole body of workers.

Maisonneuve, discreet as he was brave, kept his garrison well within the defences of the settlement, knowing that the enemy were more than his match in bush-fighting. His men, eager to attack the foe, grumbled at the restraint put upon them, and even began to question their commander's courage. At last, overcome by their eagerness, Maisonneuve consented to lead them in a sally. Thirty in number, they advanced boldly through the forest, only to be met with a sudden shower of bullets and arrows from a hidden enemy. Closely pressed by the Iroquois, who arose from the bushes in front and on both flanks, the over-valiant Frenchmen were forced to fall back. In the retreat Maisonneuve brought up the rear, encouraging his disheartened men, and keeping the pursuers in check. The last man to enter the gate was the gallant Maisonneuve, who from that day was the hero of the little garrison at Montreal.

**36. A change in government.**—In 1647 the first Canadian Council was formed, including the governor-general, the superior of the Jesuits, and the governor of Montreal. This body had absolute control of the making and enforcing of the laws, and of the administration of justice. For a time three of the leading inhabitants were also members of the Council; but this arrangement did not last long, as the French king was opposed to a government in which the people had any voice.

## SUMMARY

The Company of the Hundred Associates failed to carry out the terms of their contract. Few colonists were brought out from France, and even these were not encouraged to till the soil. The main interests of the colony were the fur trade and the missions. In the field of missions the Récollets had given place to the Jesuits. Stories of the missionaries aroused great interest in France. They inspired a pious nobleman to found a colony at Montreal.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE JESUIT MISSIONS

#### THE MISSION TO THE HURONS, 1633-1649

37. **Father Le Jeune among the Algonquins, 1633.**—It was not only to care for the French colonists that the Jesuits came to New France, but also to convert the natives. Father Le Jeune, foremost in this missionary enterprise, set himself to learn the Algonquin dialect. His teacher was an old Indian named Pierre, who had been taken to France and trained in the art of Christian living, but who, upon his return to Canada, had lapsed into the vices of his former life. Seated beside his wayward instructor, the persevering priest made some progress. "How thankful I am," he writes, "to those who gave me tobacco last year. At every difficulty I give my master a piece of it to make him more attentive." To accomplish his purpose, Le Jeune followed the roving Algonquins throughout their winter huntings, and endured untold sufferings from cold, hunger, and filthy surroundings.

38. **The Huron Mission, 1634.**—It was to the country south of the Georgian Bay that the Jesuits looked for a fruitful field of labour, thinking that if once the Hurons were converted, the faith would quickly spread among the kindred nations to the south and west. So, up the Ottawa, with its dangerous rapids and rocky *portages*, toiled three heroic missionaries, Brébeuf, Daniel, and Lalemant, ready for any experience if only it was "to God's greater glory."

No sooner was their journey completed than they set to work upon their mission house. "Without, the structure was strictly Indian; but within, the priests with the aid of such tools as they had, made changes which were

the astonishment of all the country. They divided their dwellings by transverse partitions into three apartments, each with its wooden door—a wonderful novelty in the eyes of their visitors. The first served as a hall, an ante-room, and a place for the storage of corn, beans, and dried fish. The second, the largest of the three, was at once kitchen, workshop, dining-room, drawing-room, schoolroom, and bed-chamber. The third was the chapel. Here they made their altar, and here were their images, pictures, and sacred vessels. Their fire was on the ground, in the middle of the second apartment, the smoke escaping by a hole in



FRENCH PRIEST ADDRESSING A BAND OF MOHAWK INDIANS

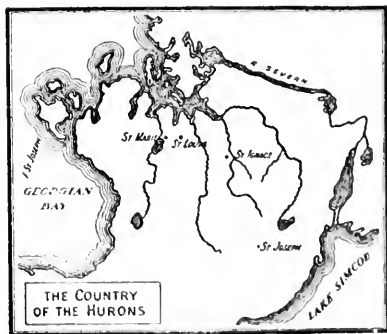
the roof. At the sides were placed two wide platforms after the Huron fashion, four feet from the earthen floor. On these were chests in which they kept their clothing and vestments, and beneath which they slept, reclining upon sheets of bark, and covered with skins and the garments they wore by day."

The Jesuits were strangers to comforts. They ate their meals seated upon logs around the fire over which their kettle was slung. Their ordinary food consisted of boiled Indian corn mixed with pieces of fish. In their eagerness to bring with them the ornaments and vestments used in

the religious services, they found no room for the necessities of life, not even for salt. Their time was divided with great regularity. At four o'clock in the morning a bell roused them from their beds of bark. From four until eight they busied themselves with masses, reading, and breakfast. At eight the door was thrown open and the Indian visitors were admitted. These some of the priests continued to teach at intervals throughout the day, while others went forth to visit the remainder of their flock, baptizing and instructing as they passed from house to house. About four or five o'clock the Indians were dismissed and the door was closed. The evening was spent in reading, writing, and conversation.

The Jesuits were called upon not only to endure great hardships, but also to face extreme dangers. The Hurons were still very superstitious, and, when trouble came upon them or danger threatened, their faith in the missionaries was shaken. "It is *la prière*" (the prayer), they said, "that kills us. Your books and your strings of beads have bewitched the country. Before you came we were happy and prosperous. You are magicians. Your charms kill our corn, and bring sickness and the Iroquois."

**39. The destruction of the Huron nation, 1648-49.**—Soon a great danger threatened priests and converts alike, the enmity



of the Iroquois. The town of St. Joseph lay on the south-eastern frontier of the Huron country. Formerly the head town, it still contained a population of two thousand, and, being most exposed to the enemy's attack, was strongly fortified. St. Joseph was the scene of Father Daniel's mis-

sionary work. One morning in July the town presented a picture of quiet and security, and in the church Father



Daniel had just finished the mass, when suddenly there arose the terrifying cry, "The Iroquois!" The brave priest, refusing to flee, vainly tried to rally his terror-stricken people, but soon fell, overwhelmed by a shower of arrows. Setting fire to the town, the Iroquois disappeared as quickly as they had come, carrying away nearly seven hundred prisoners. In the following year they boldly entered the very heart of the Huron country, and destroyed St. Ignace and St. Louis. In this raid two other devoted missionaries, Brébeuf and Lalemant, perished under the most fiendish torture.



FATHER BRÉBEUF

These attacks broke the courage of the surviving Hurons. Stunned and hopeless, they thought of nothing but flight. Burning their towns, they scattered in every direction, some seeking safety with neighbouring nations to the south and west, others fleeing to the islands of Lake Huron. The greater number took refuge on Ile St. Joseph. The Huron nation had disappeared, and with it the greatest hope of the Jesuits.

#### THE MISSION TO THE ONONDAGAS, 1653-1658

**40. A perilous mission.**—In 1653 the Iroquois, being at war with their western neighbours, made peace with the French. The Jesuits took advantage of the peace to establish a mission among the Onondagas. At first the mission was a success, but soon the priests were informed of a plot among the Onondagas to put them to death. Nothing daunted, the missionaries formed a plan for making their escape. Secretly, in the loft of the mission house, they prepared as many canoes and flat-boats as would carry their whole company. They then invited all the warriors

to a mystic feast, in connection with which it was a point of honour with each guest to eat everything set before him. Sleep, induced by this gluttony, gave the Jesuits their opportunity. Stealing down to the shore, whither some of their number had already carried the boats, they embarked, and quickly put many miles between them and their treacherous guests.

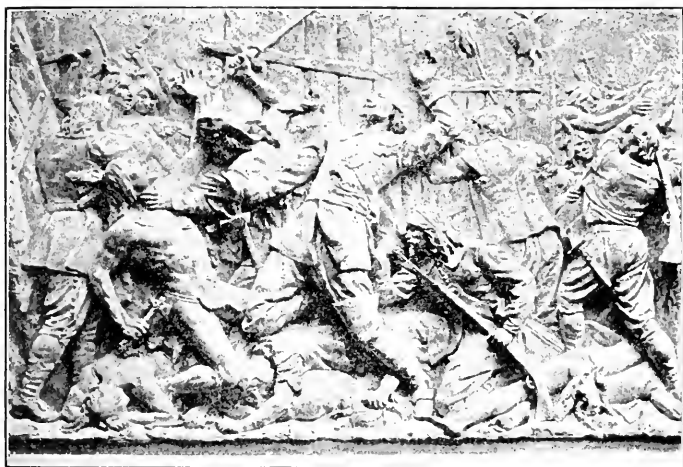
**41. The Iroquois threaten the French colonies.**—The uncertain peace was at an end, and once more the horrors of Indian warfare were the lot of the French and their allies. "Everywhere," writes the superior of the Jesuits, "we see infants to be saved for heaven, sick and dying to be baptized, adults to be instructed, but everywhere we see the Iroquois. They haunt us like persecuting goblins. They kill our new-made Christians in our arms. If they find us on the river, they kill us. If they find us in the huts of our Indians, they burn us and them together."

One day the Algonquins captured an Iroquois, and brought him to Quebec to torture. Before he expired, the victim made the startling announcement that a band of eight hundred Iroquois was encamped below Montreal, and that four hundred more, who had wintered up the Ottawa, were to join these in an attack upon Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal. Instantly the whole colony was in a panic, and everything was made ready for a desperate defence against the expected attack.

**42. The heroes of the Long Sault, 1660.**—Adam Daulac, or Dollard, Sieur des Ormeaux, a young man of good family, applied to Maisonneuve for permission to lead out a small body of picked men in an attack upon the enemy. His purpose was to waylay the Iroquois as they descended the Ottawa and to check their advance upon the settlements. Sixteen young men had sworn to follow him. At length the consent of the governor was gained, and the intrepid youths prepared for their perilous venture. After having made their wills, they confessed, and knelt for the last time before the altar.

Below the rapids of the Long Sault, near Grenville on the Ottawa River, in a palisade fort built the year

before by some Algonquin hunters, the youthful heroes took up their position. Here they were joined by a band of forty Huron and Algonquin warriors, eager to share in striking a blow at their sworn foe. Two days later the enemy were upon them, confident of an easy victory over such a mere handful. Again and again, however, the assailants were driven back, each time leaving a number of their men lying dead or wounded about the palisades. Becoming more cautious, they enticed the Hurons to desert by promising them safety. Even then,



THE DEATH OF DOLLARD, SIEUR DES ORMEAUX, THE HERO OF  
THE LONG SAULT

despairing of success, the Iroquois despatched messengers to the mouth of the Richelieu for reinforcements. Meanwhile, the gallant band of Frenchmen, supported by four Algonquins and one Huron, despite the distress of hunger, thirst, and fatigue, continued for eight days to keep the enemy at a distance. When the end came, it was before the onset of seven hundred yelling, blood-thirsty savages that the tottering palisades went down, and the undaunted defenders, scorning to accept quarter, were cut to pieces.

The heroism of Dollard and his companions-in-arms was not in vain. The colony was saved; the Iroquois had had enough of fighting, and, crestfallen, departed for their homes.

### SUMMARY

Great zeal marked the labours of the Jesuits among the Indians. It was to the Huron country that these devout missionaries mainly gave their attention, hoping that from the Hurons the gospel would spread to the other nations. Great hardships were their lot—rude dwellings, poor food, unceasing labour, and ever-present dangers. The destruction of the Huron towns by the Iroquois proved a death blow to the hopes of the Jesuits.

During a truce between the French colonists and the Iroquois, the latter invited the Jesuits to found a mission in their country, and then treacherously planned their destruction. The missionaries barely escaped with their lives. A determined attack by the Iroquois upon the French colonies was checked only by the gallant stand of the heroes of the Long Sault, led by Adam Daulac, Sieur des Ormeaux.

## CHAPTER VII

### ROYAL GOVERNMENT

1663-1672

43. **Strife within the colony.**—As if war upon her borders had not brought disaster enough, Canada's internal affairs were far from being in a peaceful state. The quiet of the colony was disturbed by the rivalry of traders, the quarrelling of priests, and the strife between bishop and governor. One cause of contention between the religious orders was the selection of a bishop. François Laval, Abbé de Montigny, who became the first bishop of Canada, was strongly in sympathy with the Jesuits. Laval, although earnest and sincere in all his actions, was fond of power, and was continually being dragged into struggles with the governor and with priests of a different order. Up to this time the Jesuits, being the most highly educated men in the colony, had exerted a strong influence, not only in church matters but also in government. This influence had been the greater because of the pious character of the early governors. But a change was now taking place. From being missions and trading-stations, Quebec and the other centres of population were becoming real colonies. Priests and traders were joined by soldiers and lawyers. The later governors, too, were less inclined to listen to the advice of the priests, and it was with these more independent officials that Laval continually dis-



MONSEIGNEUR DE LAVAL

agreed. Bishop and governor disputed over many matters, but perhaps the greatest cause of friction was the liquor question, especially the sale of brandy to the Indians.

**44. Laval's service to the church and to education.**—Laval brought about very important changes in the church and in education. He established a seminary at Quebec for the training of priests, and opened a lesser school for the education of boys, which began with eight French and six Indian pupils. To these two schools there was added, many years later, Laval University, which very fittingly bears the name of the real founder of the Roman Catholic Church in Canada.

**45. Royal government, 1663.**—In the year 1663 a very noteworthy change took place in the government of Canada, bringing to a close the rule of the fur companies. For thirty years the Company of the Hundred Associates had been on trial, and had failed to fulfil the terms of its agreement with the crown. Less than two thousand colonists had been brought out, and even of these, few were real settlers. Outside of Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers, no protection was afforded those who were willing to cultivate the soil. Complaints of this unsatisfactory state of affairs had reached France, both from the inhabitants themselves and from Laval, and now the king decided to make Canada a crown colony. Authority rested in a small Council, of which the most important members were the governor, the intendant, and the bishop. The governor commanded the army and conducted all dealings with foreign powers, including the Indians; the intendant controlled the finances of the colony and the administration of justice; the bishop ruled the church. The exclusive control of trade was given to a new company called the West India Company, and this monopoly lasted for ten years.

**46. De Mézy and Laval.**—Laval, who by his great influence at court had already secured the recall of two governors with whom he had quarrelled, was asked to name a successor. His choice was Saffray de Mézy, a veteran in war, who had passed out of a somewhat reckless youth into a middle age of extreme piety. In spite of his piety the new governor

soon fell into a quarrel with the bishop. He expelled from the Council three members who were under the influence of the bishop, and proposed to have the people elect new ones. In appealing to the people, although he did so from no love of popular government, De Mézy made a fatal mistake, of which Laval was quick to take advantage. The French king would allow no election by the people, and, upon hearing from the bishop of the governor's proposal, he immediately recalled the latter.

**47. Courcelle, Talon, and De Tracy.**—The year 1665 saw the arrival at Quebec of three notable officials, the new governor, Daniel de Rémy, Sieur de Courcelle, the intendant, Jean Baptiste Talon, and a lieutenant-general in the person of the Marquis de Tracy. The coming of these officials marked the beginning of an era of settlement. During the same season two thousand people landed at Quebec. Real settlers were sent out, and horses and sheep were supplied by the home government. No longer were the struggling settlements to be exposed to the raids of a savage foe, for De Tracy had been commissioned to subdue or destroy the Iroquois. The instrument of this work of destruction was to be the famous Carignan regiment, the first force of regulars sent to America by the French. De Tracy lost no time in preparing for war, and at once set about the erection of a new fort near the mouth of the Richelieu.

**48. De Tracy destroys the Mohawk towns.**—The first movement against the Iroquois failed, but a second attempt was more successful. De Tracy and Courcelle penetrated the forests of the Mohawks with a force of thirteen hundred men, consisting of six hundred Canadians, an equal number of regulars, and one hundred mission Indians. The enemy, warned of the threatened attack, had prepared to defend their homes, but the sound of beaten drums and the sight of long files of soldiers threw them into a panic that ended in a general flight. Five towns in all, stored with ample supplies of food, were captured and burned before the very eyes of their late inhabitants, who looked out from their hiding-places in the forest upon the scene of destruction. The enemy now sued for peace, and Canada entered upon

the enjoyment of a rest from war, which lasted for a period of twenty years

49. **Progress of the colony.**—Having humbled the war-proud Iroquois, De Tracy returned to France, leaving Courcelle and Talon to govern the country. Talon was an able official, and entered with zeal upon the task of making Canada a prosperous colony. He built a ship at the king's expense, in order to teach the people to build for themselves. He sent out engineers to search for coal, lead, copper, and other minerals. He set the example of making tar, woollen cloth, and shoes. In 1668 Talon was forced by ill health to seek his recall, but two years later, fortunately for the colony, he resumed office.



JEAN TALON

Under the direct rule of the crown, the population of Canada was increased by an annual shipment of settlers. Most of the soldiers of the Carignan regiment, which had returned to France, were sent out again, and on receiving their discharge became settlers. Rewards were given to actual settlers. For example, fifteen hundred *livres* were given to one officer who had married and taken up an estate in the country. Each soldier who settled was promised a grant of land and one hundred *livres*. Later, girls were sent out from France to become the wives of the settlers, care being taken to choose members of the peasant class who could withstand the hardships of life in a new country. In order to encourage marriage, bounties were offered, and fathers who neglected to have their children married at an early age were fined. Bachelors were discouraged by Talon's order that no man unmarried should hunt, fish, or trade with the Indians. To parents with ten children was granted a pension of three hundred *livres* a year; to those with twelve, one of four hundred.



In the upper part of the colony, which was most exposed to Indian attacks, the settlements took on a military character. Down the St. Lawrence from Montreal to the Richelieu, and up the latter stream for a considerable distance, the land was bestowed in large grants upon the officers of the Carignan regiment. They in turn divided their estates among the discharged privates of the regiment, who, under these altered circumstances, served in the double capacity of farmers and soldiers. The officers, for safety, built their houses in groups and surrounded them with a palisade. In the neighbourhood of Quebec, where the settlers were less exposed to danger, the houses were scattered along the river front, the narrowness of the farms bringing them close together. This line of homes, as distinguished from a village, was called a *côte*. So commonly did the settlers build upon the river front, that a traveller, it was said, could see every house in Canada by paddling up the St. Lawrence and the Richelieu.

### SUMMARY

In 1663 a change took place in the government of Canada. The fur companies, which had done little to develop the colonies, gave place to what was called "Royal Government." Power rested in a small Council, including the governor, the intendant, and the bishop. The governor commanded the army; the intendant controlled the finances of the colony; the bishop ruled the church. The Iroquois were subdued, and with the restoration of peace the colony made marked progress. Many settlers were brought out from France, and many discharged soldiers settled in Canada.

## CHAPTER VIII

### FRONTENAC

#### FRONTENAC'S FIRST TERM, 1672-1682

50. **Count de Frontenac, 1672.**—Louis de Buade, Count de Frontenac, who succeeded Courcelle as governor, was the strongest ruler Canada had seen since the death of Champlain. Frontenac was the descendant of an ancient French family, and had early shown a strong desire to become a soldier. This desire was fully gratified by active service in Holland. At nineteen he was colonel of a regiment, and at twenty-six a brigadier-general. After a brilliant career in the army he was appointed governor of New France. Although then fifty-two years of age, Frontenac retained the keen, fiery energy of his youth. A man of action, he was delighted with the scene of his new work. "I never," he wrote, "saw anything more superb than the position of this town (Quebec). It could not be better situated as the future capital of a great empire."



COUNT DE FRONTENAC

In order to understand Frontenac's career in Canada, two facts must be remembered. In the first place, he had left France a ruined man financially, and as a result some of his later plans were entered into, not wholly for the public good, but partly for his own profit. In the second place, he was unable to tolerate rivalry, and opposition often provoked him to great rashness.

**51. Frontenac and the Indians.**—In order to control the Iroquois and to attract the trade of the upper lakes, Frontenac built Fort Frontenac, where Kingston now stands. To this fort the Iroquois were summoned to meet the "Great Onontio," as the governor was called. Frontenac fondled the children, feasted the squaws, and won over the warriors with lavish gifts. Yet there was no lack of firmness in his manner, as may be gathered from his address. "Children, Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas, I am glad to see you here, where I have had a fire lighted for you to smoke by, and for me to talk to you. You have done well, my children, to obey the command of your Father. Take courage; you will hear his word, which is full of peace and tenderness. For do not think that I have come for war. My mind is full of peace." Then, in a warning voice, he continued, "If your Father can come so far, with so great a force, through such dangerous rapids, merely to make you a visit of pleasure and friendship, what would he do if you should awaken his anger, and make it necessary for him to punish his disobedient children?" The Iroquois departed from the council deeply impressed by the "Great Onontio's" mingled kindness and firmness.

**52. Frontenac's first quarrel.**—The new governor's aggressive spirit early drew him into a quarrel with Perrot, governor of Montreal. Perrot had married Talon's niece, and this connection he used for his own gain. Building a storehouse above Montreal, he intercepted the Indians on their way with furs to the regular market lower down the river. Further, he permitted his men to escape to the woods, where as *coureurs de bois* they traded with the Indians, sharing their illegal profits with their commander. Frontenac sent a lieutenant with an order for the arrest of one of the Montreal offenders. Perrot, upon receiving Frontenac's letter, threw it in the face of the bearer, crying, "Take it back to your master, and tell him to teach you your business better another time. Meanwhile, you are my prisoner." This hot-headed official, obeying a summons from Frontenac to appear at Quebec to

explain his conduct, was put in prison and finally was sent back to France, but after a short imprisonment he was restored to his governorship. The hanging of one *coureur de bois* had the effect of checking the lawlessness which was becoming common.

53. **Strife between Frontenac and Duchesneau.**—The king, while upholding Frontenac in his quarrel with Perrot, wished to put a check upon such a headstrong governor, and so sent out an intendant, Duchesneau, to watch his movements. Almost from the outset, the governor and the intendant were rivals, their rivalry becoming keenest in connection with the fur trade. Upon this question the entire population—*habitants*, traders and merchants—was divided, the governor leading one faction, the intendant the other. Duchesneau wrote home charging Frontenac with having *coureurs de bois* in his employ, and thus making illegal gains out of the fur trade. Frontenac brought similar charges against his rival. At length the king, becoming impatient at such continual discord, recalled both officials.

### SUMMARY

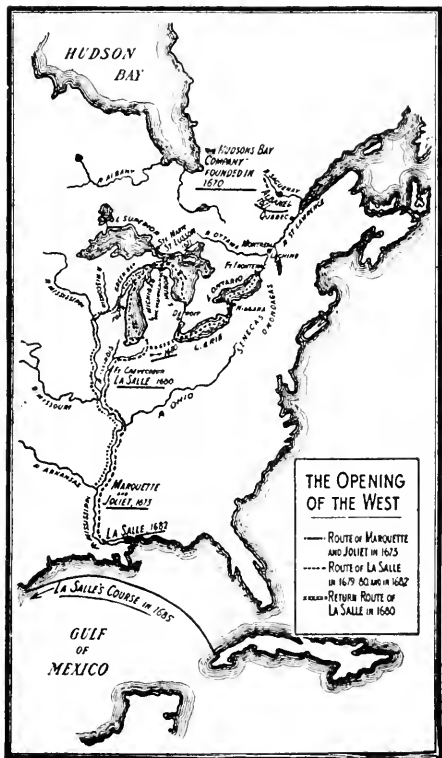
In 1672 Count de Frontenac, the strongest ruler of New France since the death of Champlain, became governor. A bitter quarrel between the governor and the intendant over the fur trade soon led to the recall of both officials.

### THE OPENING OF THE WEST, 1670-1682

54. **The Jesuits in the West.**—Meanwhile, men had not lost interest in the still unexplored West. The Jesuits, driven from their chosen field of labour by the destruction of the Huron nation, turned to the north-west, renewing their work by the shores of Lakes Huron, Superior, and Michigan. Their missionary enterprise led them to take a keen interest in exploration and in the extension of French influence. In this work they found a strong supporter in the energetic intendant, Talon. When, in 1671, St. Lussou, an explorer sent out by Talon, reached

Sault Ste. Marie, he found a Jesuit mission already established. There, upon a neighbouring hilltop, he took formal possession of the "Great West" in the name of the king of France.

55. **The Hudson's Bay Company founded, 1670.**—Meanwhile, in the north, representatives of another nation were gaining a foothold, from which they were soon to dispute with the French the possession of the territory to which St. Luson had laid claim. As the Jesuit missionaries pressed westwards they were closely followed by the fur traders. Among the latter were two traders of Montreal, Groseilliers and Pierre Radisson, who had together made several trips into the country beyond Lake Superior. Here they had fallen in with Indians of the Assiniboine tribe, who told them of a great body of water lying far to the north. Henceforth Groseilliers' mind was filled with the purpose of finding this northern sea. Failing to gain the support of the French company which controlled trade in Canada, this persevering trader sought aid elsewhere, first at Boston, then at Paris, and finally in England. By good fortune he gained an audience with Prince Rupert, a cousin of



Charles II, who at once became interested in his strange story. Groseilliers and his partner, Radisson, were placed in charge of two small ships. Owing to a storm, Radisson was compelled to turn back, but Groseilliers reached the bay in safety. At the southern extremity of the bay he erected Fort Charles, so called in honour of the English sovereign; and here, without loss of time, he entered into trade with the northern Indians. So favourable was the report carried back to England, that the king granted, in 1670, a charter to "The Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson Bay," an organization which from that time has continued to play an important part in the development of western Canada.



MARQUETTE AND JOLIET SETTING OUT TO SEARCH  
FOR THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER

**56. Marquette and Joliet discover the Mississippi. 1673.**—In 1673 the Mississippi River was discovered by two young Canadians, Louis Joliet, the son of a humble wagon-maker, and Jacques Marquette, a Jesuit priest. The course taken by these explorers lay across the upper end of Lake Michigan into Green Bay, and up the Fox River to its source. Here they made a *portage* of a mile and a half over prairie and through marsh, emerging upon the bank of the Wisconsin. Down this stream they paddled to the Mississippi, which they beheld, as Marquette writes, "with a joy which I cannot express." The voyagers descended the great river as far as the mouth of the Arkansas, but at this point, fearing the hostility of the Indians, they decided to turn back.

57. **La Salle.**—Of all the men who sacrificed ease, and in some cases even life, to the service of France in the West, probably the most devoted was René-Robert Cavelier, commonly called La Salle. We find La Salle, shortly after his arrival in Canada, in possession of a valuable estate at Lachine, eight miles above Montreal. La Salle, however, was not ambitious to acquire wealth. In trading with the Indians, he heard that the Ohio River flowed into a distant sea, and he dreamed, like Champlain, of China and Japan. To convert his dreams into realities he sold his estate, and with the proceeds bought canoes and the outfit necessary for a journey of exploration. There is great uncertainty about La Salle's early wanderings; yet he seems to have learned enough to convince him that the Ohio and Illinois rivers found their outlet, not in a western ocean, but in the Gulf of Mexico.

58. **La Salle's explorations.**—It was through Frontenac's aid that La Salle was at last able to undertake his western explorations. In August, 1679, accompanied by Henri de Tonti, he embarked upon the waters of Lake Erie in the *Griffin*, a vessel he had built above Niagara. Detroit, Michilimackinac, and Green Bay marked the course of



SIEUR DE LA SALLE

his voyage. From Green Bay he sent back the *Griffin* laden with furs, while he, with the remainder of his party, pushed on in canoes to the lower end of Lake Michigan. In December he crossed over to the head-waters of the Illinois, and drifting down this stream, discovered a large Indian town. Here the explorers built a fort which they called Crève-cœur. From this point La Salle, with four picked men, returned to Montreal to secure fresh supplies and equipment for a new vessel. At the end of a painful and dangerous journey the travellers were met with the dis-

couraging news that the *Griffin* had been lost and that a ship from France bearing supplies had been wrecked.

La Salle's affairs were now in a desperate state. His friends were in despair and his opponents in triumph. A weaker man would have lost hope and abandoned his purpose, but not so this indomitable Frenchman. Without loss of time he set about the equipment of a small force wherewith to retrace the long, wearisome journey to the Illinois. At his journey's end a second great disappointment awaited him. He found Fort Crèvecœur in ruins and no trace of Tonti. The gallant Italian and five faithful followers, deserted by the majority of the garrison, had been set upon by an Iroquois war party and had barely escaped with their lives. It was not until the end of the following summer that La Salle again met Tonti. The joy of their reunion went far towards reconciling La Salle and his faithful lieutenant to the great misfortunes through which each had passed.

In making their third venture La Salle and Tonti abandoned the idea of building a vessel, and embarked in canoes. On February 6th, 1682, they pushed out into the broad current of the Mississippi, and early in April the waters of the Gulf of Mexico burst upon their view. Rearing a column bearing the royal arms of France, La Salle formally took possession of the surrounding country and named it Louisiana in honour of his king. On his return to France he was loaded with honours and hailed as one of the great discoverers of the age.

Sad, indeed, was the fate of La Salle. Five years later, in an effort to found a colony at the mouth of the river he had explored, he was foully murdered by one of his own men, and his body left lying upon the open prairie, the prey of bird and beast.

### SUMMARY

The Jesuit missionaries, driven from their chosen field of labour by the destruction of the Huron towns, were now extending French influence to the shores of Lake Superior and Lake Michigan. At the same time the English, through the Hudson's Bay Company, were gaining a foothold on the shores of the great inland sea to the north. In every



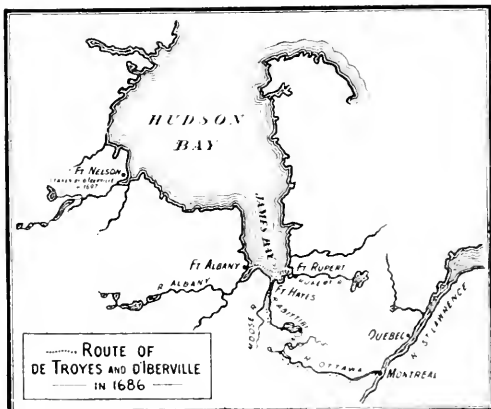
move westwards the missionaries took an active part. It was a young Jesuit, Jacques Marquette, who, with Louis Joliet, discovered the Mississippi. Then followed the wider explorations of La Salle, who, undaunted by two failures, at last made his way down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico

### THE IROQUOIS SCOURGE, 1682-1689

59. **Le Febvre de la Barre, 1682.**—Frontenac's successor was Le Febvre de la Barre, an officer who had served in the West Indies. The greatest difficulty the new governor had to face was the hostility of the Iroquois. These shrewd warriors thought that if they subdued the Illinois, Ottawas, and Hurons, they would be able to divert the current of trade, which was pouring its wealth of furs into the French settlements, and cause it to flow in the direction of New York. Such was the situation with which La Barre had to cope, and as he was more interested in trade than in war, he soon made peace with the Iroquois. As this policy made the Indians still more insolent, he was recalled, and in 1685 his place was taken by the Marquis de Denonville.

60. **Commercial rivalry.**—It was not only the hostility of the Iroquois which the French had to fear, but also the aggressive policy of the English colon-

ists. These laid claim to all the country south of the Great Lakes, and were seeking to gain a hold upon the fur trade of the West and North-West. To add to the difficulty of the situation, the Hudson's Bay Company was drawing off



the trade of the northern tribes. English and French were face to face in a struggle for commercial supremacy, and their rivalry was bound, sooner or later, to break into a clash of arms. If the French won, the English colonies would be hemmed in along the Atlantic coast; if victory rested with the English, their rivals would be confined to the valley of the St. Lawrence.

The Hudson's Bay Company had strengthened its position by the establishment of four trading-posts: one upon the west shore near the Nelson, and the other three, Forts Albany, Hayes and Rupert, on James Bay. In Canada the fur trade was controlled by the Company of the North, whose members now resolved to destroy their English rivals. This resolution met with the favour of the governor. In the spring of 1686 Chevalier de Troyes, at the head of a company of eighty Frenchmen, including Pierre le Moyne D'Iberville and his two brothers, left Montreal for Hudson Bay. Ascending the Ottawa, these adventurers worked their way slowly by stream and lake over the height of land. So sudden was their coming and so spirited their attack, that the English posts fell almost without a struggle.



THE MARQUIS DE DENONVILLE

**61. Denonville's difficulties.—**

Meanwhile, Denonville was preparing to strike an effective blow at the Iroquois, more particularly at the Senecas who were giving most trouble to Canada. His object in doing so was to foil the English, who were undoubtedly urging on the Senecas, and to regain the confidence of the northern tribes, which had been shaken by the weakness of La Barre. Preparations for a great expedition were hastened.

The main force gathered at Fort Frontenac, while messengers were sent to summon the Indians and *coureurs de*

*bois* of the West. At the place of meeting on the south shore of Lake Ontario, all the forces arrived upon the same day: from the east, the French and the mission Indians; from the west, the warriors of the Illinois under Tonti, and the Ottawas and Hurons of Michilimackinac; in all three thousand fighting men. Marching inland twenty-two miles, Denonville destroyed the town and the corn supplies of the enemy. Before leaving the country, he erected a fort at Niagara, where he left a garrison of one hundred men. The grand expedition strengthened the wavering allegiance of the western tribes; but it failed even to cripple the Senecas, who quickly rebuilt their town. Denonville had overturned a wasp's nest, and must now kill the wasps if he would not be stung.

The invasion of the Seneca country and the building of Fort Niagara aroused the anger of the New York colonists. The governor of New York demanded the destruction of the fort. Denonville had but little choice in the matter. Disease, caused by the use of bad provisions, had carried off all but a dozen of the garrison. The order was given to abandon Niagara.

Canada was in a wretched plight. The hostility of the Iroquois had put a stop to the fur trade for two years, and, as a result, famine threatened the unfortunate colony. The enemy were everywhere, usually in small bands, seeking some straggling victim. The fields were abandoned, while the settlers sought safety in the forts. It was felt that peace must be bought at any price. Denonville, who held a number of Iroquois prisoners, sent two or three of them home to induce their countrymen to send envoys to a peace council, promising, if they did so, to release the remainder of the captives. It looked as if peace were to be concluded, for the Iroquois sent their representatives as requested. These had reached Lake Ontario on their way to Montreal, when an unexpected event changed the whole situation.

Among the Hurons about Michilimackinac was a clever chief named Kondiaronk, or the "Rat." This warrior had given the French much trouble, but they had overcome his

hostility by promising never to make peace with the Iroquois. The Rat, with a band of his followers, had taken the war-path in search of the enemy, when he suddenly learned at Fort Frontenac of the proposed truce. Enraged at this breach of faith on the part of his allies, the revengeful chief formed a plot to break off the peace negotiations. Leaving Fort Frontenac, apparently for Michilimackinac, he hastened across Lake Ontario to La Famine, a point which he knew the Iroquois envoys must pass on their way to Montreal. When at length the latter appeared, they were met with a volley of bullets, and all but one were killed or wounded. Binding his captives, the Rat informed them that he was acting under orders from Denonville; whereupon the Iroquois protested that they were messengers of peace. Their captor, craftily pretending that the French governor had deceived him, released his prisoners, saying: "Go, my brothers, go home to your people. Though there is war between us, I give you your liberty. Onontio has made me to do so black a deed that I shall never be happy again till your five tribes take a just vengeance upon him."

The Rat's plan was completely successful, and the "vengeance" was not long delayed. Under the black shelter of a stormy summer night in 1689, fifteen hundred warriors fell upon the settlement at Lachine, and began a massacre which, even amid the bloody horrors of border warfare, stands out in lurid colours. Subercase, the commander of the fort three miles away, had been absent in Montreal, and on his arrival next day, houses were still burning, the ground was strewn with dead bodies, and corpses were hanging where the Indians had tortured their victims the night before. He and his men, full of fury, were setting out to attack the Iroquois, who had withdrawn about a mile and a half further on, when a messenger arrived with strict orders from Denonville to stand on the defensive. The next day eighty men, in the attempt to join Subercase in the fort, were cut in pieces before the eyes of the infuriated and chafing garrison. The inhabitants of Montreal were crazed with fear, while for miles about the town the ruthless invaders burned and pillaged at their will. Finally, they withdrew, hurling back

their cry to the French, "Onontio, you deceived us, and now we have deceived you."

It was evident that Denonville was not the man to deal with such a situation, and he was accordingly recalled.

### SUMMARY

The French were not without rivals in their move to occupy the West with its wealth of furs. The trading posts of the Hudson's Bay Company drew many of the Indians to the north. On the other hand, the traders of the New England colonies put forth every effort to attract the western tribes to Albany. The Iroquois, controlling the channels of trade flowing into the French and New England colonies alike, held the balance of power. Frequently the fur trade was interrupted by fierce outbreaks of Indian warfare. These found their climax in the massacre of Lachine.

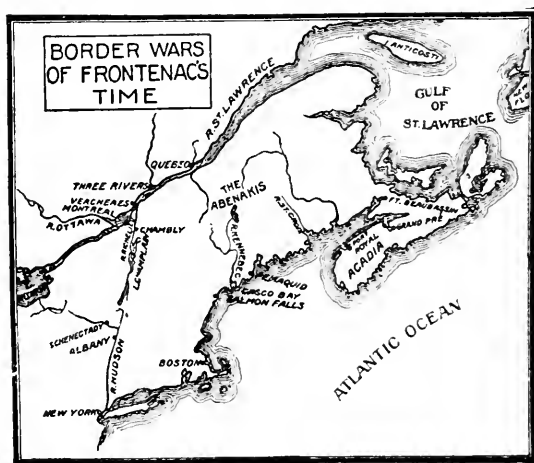
### FRONTENAC SAVES NEW FRANCE, 1689-1698

**62. Frontenac again governor, 1689.**—In this crisis the king of France turned to the man whom he had a few years before recalled from the governorship. In spite of his seventy years, Frontenac again assumed the burden of office. Warmly welcomed at Quebec, he lost no time in proceeding to Montreal to relieve Denonville. To his disgust he found that the latter had given an order for the destruction of Fort Frontenac. The outlook was gloomy indeed. The boldness of the Iroquois in attacking Montreal, and the inaction of the French soldiers during the massacre, had the effect of making the western tribes look with contempt upon their allies. Word was brought to Frontenac that a rising of the Indians about Michilimackinac might take place at any moment. There was real danger of an alliance of these Indians with the Iroquois, a combination which, backed by the English, would bring about the ruin of the French in Canada. By sending back some prisoners whom he held, Frontenac hoped to restore peace with the Iroquois, but unfortunately the latter were not so ready as before to listen to the voice of the "Great Onontio."

**63. Attacks upon the English colonists.**—Frontenac

began to make preparations for a threefold attack, not upon the Iroquois, whom he could not reach, but upon the English, whom he regarded as the cause of Canada's misfortunes. In 1690 three war parties were fitted out: one to attack Albany, a second the border of New Hampshire, a third that of Maine.

It was in the depth of winter that the first party, made up of two hundred and ten men, mainly *coureurs de bois* and Christian Indians, left Montreal on their long tramp up the Richelieu and Lake Champlain. The march proved so arduous that it was decided to divert the attack from



Albany to the little town of Schenectady. Through deep drifts, in the face of a blinding snowstorm, the invaders finally approached the town. It was about midnight; the inhabitants, all unsuspecting of danger,

lay buried in sleep; the gates stood wide open. The unfortunate inmates had scarcely time to leap from their beds when they were beaten down by tomahawk or knife. Women and children shared a like fate with the men. Sixty persons, we are told, were killed, of whom ten were women, and twelve children. About forty captives were carried off by the victors when, after setting fire to the town, they began their retreat. The other two raids were equally successful, equally brutal.

**64. The English colonists aroused.**—The three raids produced the effect which Frontenac desired. Success

inspired the French colonies with fresh courage. If, however, the French governor hoped that by such inhuman methods he would reduce the English colonists to a state of fear, he mistook their character. The spring of 1690 found the English busy upon a plan for the invasion of Canada both by land and by water.

A large force of colonists and Iroquois was to muster at Albany for an attack upon Montreal. Meanwhile, a fleet was entrusted to Sir William Phips, who had earlier in the season taken Port Royal in Acadia. Nothing came of the movement against Montreal. Phips, however, reached Quebec with a fleet of thirty-four trading and fishing vessels of all sizes, manned by about two thousand sailors and soldiers. The English commander at once despatched an officer with a letter to the French governor, demanding the surrender of Quebec, an answer to be given within an hour. The officer was not kept waiting an hour. "I will answer your general," cried Frontenac, "only by the mouths of my cannon, that he may learn that a man like me is not to be summoned after this fashion. Let him do his best, and I will do mine." If Phips looked for any such easy capture of the Canadian stronghold as fell to the lot of Kirke, he was doomed to disappointment. While he was casting about for a plan of attack, a reinforcement of eight hundred regulars and *coureurs de bois* succeeded in entering the besieged town. Phips's plan was to land a strong force of militia to attack the palisades in the rear, while the fleet bombarded the town from the river. Unfortunately he allowed his fleet to be drawn into action too soon, with the result that his ammunition was exhausted before the time came to co-operate with the land force. Moreover, his ships suffered so much in the exchange of fire, that he was forced to raise the siege.

65. **Border warfare.**—The next four years were filled with border warfare, in which both sides suffered. The Iroquois continued to make their deadly raids upon the outlying settlements, but as their very success rendered them careless, they often drew down upon themselves severe punishment. Quick to see that the bulk of the furs reached the French

by way of the Ottawa, they continually beset that stream in strong bands. Since the continuance of the fur trade was essential to the welfare of the colony, every effort was put forth by Frontenac to keep the Ottawa open. As a conse-

quence, the banks of that important river were the scene of many desperate encounters between the French and the Iroquois.

#### 66. The heroine of Vercheres.

—In this period of distress and danger it was the settlers of



FRONTIER VILLAGE PALISADE

the upper St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Three Rivers, who suffered most. Every precaution was taken against sudden attacks. The farmers worked together, passing in a body from one field to another, and were often guarded by a detachment of soldiers. At night all took refuge in the nearest fort. The story of an incident of this period reads like a romance. About twenty miles below Montreal lay the seignior of Verchères, which, in the absence of the seignior, had been left in charge of two soldiers, two boys, an old man, and a few women and children. Madeleine, the fourteen-year-old daughter of the seignior, standing one morning near the river, was suddenly startled by the cry of a hired man, "Run, Mademoiselle, run: here come the Iroquois!" The maiden ran for the fort with the bullets whistling about her head, and closed and barred the gate. All within were panic-stricken, the women crying and the soldiers hiding; Madeleine alone was calm. Assuming command, the little heroine prepared to defend her father's home. With the aid of the two soldiers and her young brothers, she succeeded in keeping off the Indians for a whole week, until help arrived from Montreal.



67. **The war upon the Acadian border.**—The struggle between the French and English colonists spread to Acadia, Newfoundland and Hudson Bay. The French, while fighting with the English of New York and their Iroquois allies, were also harassing the New Englanders, or “Bastonnais,” from the borders of Acadia. There were not more than a thousand colonists in Acadia, the principal settlements being at Port Royal, Beaubassin, and Les Mines. Scattered along the coasts were the fishermen, and throughout the forests the fur traders. The territory lying between the Kennebec and the St. Croix, claimed by both French and English, was occupied by the Abenakis. The French incited these Indians to attacks upon the English and supplied them with guns, powder, and lead. To restrain the Abenakis the English built a stone fort on the river Pemaquid.



D'IBERVILLE

68. **Pierre le Moyne D'Iberville.**—No man did more in this period to uphold the power of France in North America than did Pierre le Moyne D'Iberville. He had been the right-hand man of De Troyes in the seizure of the English posts upon Hudson Bay. In Acadia he captured the fort on the Pemaquid; in Newfoundland he seized every English settlement. He was the best man, therefore, to take charge of the fleet which had been fitted out for an attack upon Fort Nelson, called by the French Fort Bourbon, the most important trading-post on Hudson Bay. With a single ship he met and overcame three English vessels belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company. The reward of this signal victory was the possession of Fort Nelson.

69. **Death of Frontenac, 1698.**—In 1697 the peace of Ryswick put an end to the war between England and France, and restored peace to the troubled border that lay between

their American colonies. In the following year, at the age of seventy-eight, Frontenac died. The grief of the people was great, for with the poorer classes his generosity had made him very popular. His entire career bears testimony to his remarkable ability in managing the Indians. Upon the whole, his work in Canada was a success. At his coming he had found the country upon the verge of ruin; at the hour of his death the French cause in Canada was almost triumphant.

Three years after the peace of Ryswick, the object of Frontenac, the bringing of the Indians into peaceful relations with the French and their allies, was accomplished. A great council was held at Montreal, where thirteen hundred warriors met to smoke the pipe of peace and exchange belts of wampum. Abenakis were there from Acadia, Hurons and Ottawas from Lake Superior, Crees from the far North-West, Miamis from the St. Joseph, and Illinois from the distant river which had witnessed the disasters of La Salle.

### SUMMARY

Seeing that his colonies were in serious danger through the weakness of incompetent governors, the French king restored Frontenac to power. Immediately upon his arrival at Quebec, the governor planned a threefold attack upon the New Englanders. The borders of the New England States were subjected to all the atrocities of Indian warfare. The English retaliated by sending a fleet to attack Quebec and a land force to attack Montreal. The struggle between the French and English colonists spread to Acadia, Newfoundland, and Hudson Bay. D'Iberville was the greatest champion of the French cause. To him are credited the capture of the New England stronghold on the border of Acadia, the seizure of every English settlement in Newfoundland, and the defeat of an English fleet on Hudson Bay, a victory which placed Fort Nelson at his mercy. The peace of Ryswick, 1697, restored peace to the troubled borders of the American colonies.

## CHAPTER IX

### SOCIAL CONDITIONS

**70. Feudalism in Canada.**—As far as the conditions of the country allowed, French-Canadian society was modelled after the feudal system, which flourished in Europe in the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries. The theory was that the king received his land from God as a fief, or feud,—hence the term *feudalism*. In reality, the king owned the soil by right of the sword. Dividing the land, he granted it to the great nobles who had helped him in war. Each noble, in turn, sublet the greater portion of his fief to his followers. He who granted the fief was called a suzerain, liege, or lord; he to whom the grant was made was known as a vassal, liegeman, or retainer. The relationship existing between lord and vassal was one of mutual benefit. The lord gave protection, the vassal service.

It was the great statesman, Cardinal Richelieu, who introduced feudalism into Canada, in connection with the charter of the Hundred Associates. His object in doing so was twofold: first to create a Canadian aristocracy, and second—the main reason—to establish an easy system of dividing the land among settlers. The seignior, as the suzerain was called in Canada, receiving a fief from the king, became his vassal, and in turn made grants to the *censitaires*, those who held their land on the



OLD HOUSES AT LÉVIS

payment of *cens*, or quit-rent. The lowest class in Canadian society, the cultivators of the soil, were known as the *habitants*.

That the land might not lie waste, the seignior was forced by the terms of his grant to clear his estate within a certain time. As he was usually too poor to do this himself, and as he was not allowed to sell any part uncleared, he was compelled to grant it to others at a small rental. The rental varied from half a cent to two cents for each acre, and was paid, part in money, part in wheat, eggs, or live fowls. The land of the *censitaire* passed at his death to his children; but if he sold it, he was called upon to pay to his seignior one-twelfth of the price received. In like manner, if a seignior parted with his estate, the king was entitled to one-fifth of the purchase money. Some demands made upon the *censitaire*, though not often enforced, were that he should grind his grain in the seignior's mill, make his bread in the seignior's oven, and give him one fish out of every eleven for the right to fish in the river flowing past his land.

The nobles of France were too fond of the court to exchange its pleasures for the privations of colonial life. The Canadian nobility was, therefore, composed of some officers of the Carignan regiment and a few of the more prominent colonists, prosperous merchants and farmers, to whom the king had granted patents of nobility. In some cases money bought this honour. Thus, we are told, a certain shopkeeper of Montreal was made a gentleman on payment of six thousand *livres*. The lot of the more aristocratic of these Canadian nobles was not a very fortunate one, their poverty being extreme. Prevented by their rank from cultivating the soil or engaging in trade, they quickly fell into debt. In spite of the aid which they received from the king, their position grew from bad to worse. Under such circumstances it is not surprising that they took advantage of the only occupation open to them; namely, the fur trade. It was from this class of exiled gentlemen, steeped in forestlore, that the great explorers were drawn, and, in time of war, the most gallant defenders of New France.

71. **The government.**—Subject to the will of the king, the

absolute rule of Canada rested with the governor, the intendant, and a Council which carried on the government, made laws, and saw that justice was done. The governor, save during the early years of the colony, was usually a military leader and a noble, often of high rank. The control of the army lay in his hands, and also the power to deal with the Indians. The intendant, on the other hand, was usually of the legal class, and being of humble rank, was the more dependent upon the king. Yet the power of this official within the colony was very great. He controlled the public funds

and presided at the meetings of the Council. In fact, according to his commission, he



CHATEAU DE ST. LOUIS, 1698

was "to order everything as he should see just and proper."

For the administration of justice there was an attorney-general to hear complaints, and, if necessary, submit them to the Council. At Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal, there were local judges, appointed by the king; from them appeal might be made to the Council. In less important cases the seigniors administered justice among the *habitants*. There was also the bishop's court at Quebec, to deal with offences against the church. Above all courts, and even the Council, was the intendant, who had the right to try any case.

The people were never consulted in matters of government. When a meeting of the people of Quebec was called to discuss the price of bread and the supply of firewood, it was promptly suppressed. For a time each town had been allowed to choose a local leader, called a *syndic*, but, at the bidding of the king, this privilege was taken away. All classes were subject to the crown. "It is of very great consequence," writes one intendant, "that the people should not be left at liberty to speak their minds."

**72. The fur trade.**—From the earliest times the people had not been allowed to engage freely in trade. The government strove to retain control of the fur trade by inviting the

Indians to bring their furs to the settlements, and by preventing the traders from going into the forests. In order



A CANADIAN TRAPPER

to further this object, a great fair was held annually at Montreal to which the Indians were urged to bring their furs for barter. Hither fleets of canoes, laden with beaver skins, made their way down the Ottawa. When the fair had been formally opened, usually by the governor, the merchants fell to trading with their dusky visitors, receiving costly furs in exchange for the necessaries of the hunt or ornaments for the person. Brandy was freely sold, so that too often the fair ended in drunken rioting. Nor was the plan altogether a commercial success. The more daring traders, in defiance of the

laws, settled above Montreal, intercepted the Indians on their way to the fair, and by a liberal use of brandy, persuaded them to part with their furs at low prices.

### 73. The *coureurs de bois*.

—Nor did lawlessness stop here. Many adventurous youths, some of good families, advancing beyond the outmost settlements, visited the Indians in their distant villages and there secured the choicest furs. These *coureurs de bois* were a constant source of anxiety to the governor. Once outside the settlements, they passed from under his power, and made it impossible to control the fur trade.



COUREUR DE BOIS

Efforts to punish these headstrong youths only served to make them outlaws, and there was serious danger of their becoming enemies of their country.

So quickly did their number increase that at one time they made up one twelfth of a population of ten thousand. It was love of adventure that won these restless spirits from the unattractive work of farming within the colony. Such was the freedom of life in the forest, where they consorted with the Indians, that the return of a party of *coureurs de bois* to Montreal was usually the occasion of unrestrained revelry. When the last of their dearly earned furs had been thrown away as the price of their entertainment, they plunged again into the woods, to take up once more the wild life which a brief season of dissipation had interrupted.

74. **The missions.**—The missions to the Hurons and to the Onondagas had closed in disaster, but no sooner had De Tracy's military display restored peace than the Jesuits again entered the field. The Iroquois were the object of their missionary care. They endeavoured to convert them, and used their influence to win them over from the English and Dutch to the side of the French. After events show that their efforts met with little success. The greatest obstacle with which the missionaries had to contend was the liquor traffic, carried on both by the Dutch and the English traders among the Iroquois, and by the *coureurs de bois* and garrison soldiers among the Canadian Indians. One missionary writing to the intendant says, "Our missions are reduced to such extremity that we can no longer maintain them against the infinity of disorder which the infamous traffic in brandy has spread universally among the Indians of these parts." He charges the soldiers of the garrisons with making unlawful gain out of the fur trade by the free use of brandy, and with sharing the profit with their commander. This same missionary is equally severe in his criticism of the *coureurs de bois* and their practice of trading with the Indians. "It serves only to rob the country of all its young men, . . . to accustom the *coureurs de bois* to live in constant idleness, unfit them for any trade, and render them useless to themselves, their families, and the public."

The Jesuits strove to have the brandy traffic stopped, on the ground that it was ruining the missions. Those, on the other hand, who were interested in the traffic urged that

without the use of brandy the French would lose the fur trade; the Dutch and the English merchants made use of liquor in trading, and the Indians went wherever "fire-water" was to be had. Influenced by the argument of the traders, the king refused to stop the liquor traffic, although he ordered it to be controlled.

**75. Social disorders.**—The moral state of the colony prior to 1663 was much better than after that date. The population was small and well under the control of the missionaries. But with the establishment of "royal government" came a change. When the tide of immigration set in, many of the newcomers were found to be of a doubtful character. The soldiers of the Carignan regiment, accustomed to all the license of camp life, did not improve the morality of the young settlements in which they were stationed. Some of their officers were far from setting a good example, as they made profit out of the sale of brandy to the Indians.

**76. A picture of town and country life.**—One historian has given us a picture of the town and country life of the early French-Canadians. "August, September, and October were the busy months at Quebec. Then the ships from France discharged their lading, the shops and warehouses of the Lower Town were filled with goods, and the



THE URSULINE CONVENT, QUEBEC

Founded in 1639

*habitants* came to town to make their purchases. When the frosts began, the vessels sailed away, the harbour was deserted, the streets were silent again, and like ants or squirrels, the people set to work to lay in their winter stores. Fathers

of families packed their cellars with beets, carrots, potatoes,



and cabbages; and, at the end of autumn, with meat, fowls, game, fish, and eels, all frozen to stony hardness. Most of the shops closed, and the long season of leisure and amusement began. . . . In the country parishes there was the same autumnal storing away of frozen vegetables, meat, fish, and eels, and unfortunately the same surfeit of leisure through five months of the year."

### SUMMARY

The French introduced feudalism into Canada. Under this system the king granted the land in large tracts to members of the aristocracy, who were called seigniors. These in turn rented small farms to their dependents, called in Canada *habitants*. This plan proved far from successful. The government was carried on by a governor, an intendant, and a Council. The governor controlled the army, and the intendant held the public funds. This division of power led to frequent quarrels. The whole system was despotic, the people having no voice in the government. Just as the government was despotic, so was the system of trade kept under the control of the great companies. Private trade was discouraged. In defiance of law many of the colonists penetrated the wilds of the West, and carried on trade with the Indians. These lawless citizens, called *coureurs de bois*, at one time numbered one-twelfth of the population.

## CHAPTER X

### A HALF-CENTURY OF CONFLICT

QUEEN ANNE'S WAR. 1697-1713

**77. French and English interests in the West.**—Canada and the northern English colonies had but a short breathing space after the peace of Ryswick. Both were tired of war and needed rest; yet both promptly prepared for a renewal of the struggle which they knew was certain to come. During the early years of the war, there was very little fighting, except along the eastern frontier, Maine being the scene of action. The explanation of this fact is to be found in the history of the fur trade. The French drew all their valuable furs from the tribes of the western lakes. The English and the Dutch were putting forth every effort to attract these same tribes to Albany. Between the English and the western Indians lay the shrewd Iroquois, who were anxious to act as middlemen between the West and the East. While French, English, and Iroquois were rivals in trade, they were united in their efforts to avert war, which would block the channel of their common gain.

There were two parties in French Canada. The one wished to confine settlement to the banks of the St. Lawrence; the other favoured planting military posts throughout the West. The most active of those who favoured the forming of western settlements was Antoine Cadillac, at one time commandant of Michilimackinac. He proposed that a settlement and fort should be established at the "Strait" (Détroit) connecting Lakes Huron and Erie. The importance of this point was very great indeed. If it were occupied by the English, the French would be cut off from the base of their fur supply; if, on the other hand, it were held by the French, it would serve as a check upon both the English and the Iroquois in their

dealings with the western tribes. In spite of the merchants, who feared that the Indians would no longer bring their furs down to Montreal, Detroit was occupied as a trading-post in 1701.

**78. The war in Acadia.**—The struggle between the French and English colonists began, as has been said, on the border between Acadia and Maine, and the principal actors were the Abenakis. These savages, easily influenced by the French agents among them, had dyed their hands in the blood of English settlers during the recent war and were again ready for the warpath. Left to themselves, the Abenakis, attracted by the cheapness of the goods offered by the Boston traders, would have been disposed to keep the peace. The French, however, incited them to war. No settlement on the New England border escaped. In one month as many as one hundred and sixty persons of all ages were slain or captured. The English colonists, finding the land route to the French colonies barred by the Abenakis, struck back at the point which was most easily reached by sea. Port Royal, the seat of the Acadian government, became the special object of attack. In 1710 this fort fell into the hands of the English and was named Annapolis Royal. As there was no other stronghold in the country, the capture of Port Royal carried with it the possession of all Acadia.

**79. Failure of a movement against Quebec.**—In 1711 aid from Britain arrived, and a gigantic scheme for the conquest of Canada was entered into. A land force was to advance



FRENCH SOLDIER AT END  
OF SEVENTEENTH  
CENTURY

against Montreal by way of Lake Champlain, while an unusually large fleet, made up of nine ships-of-war and about sixty transports, carrying in all twelve thousand men, sailed for the St. Lawrence. Amid the elaborate



BRITISH SOLDIER AT END OF  
SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

preparations, however, pilots had been forgotten, and at the mouth of the St. Lawrence the fleet was driven ashore and eight transports were wrecked. This mishap was not serious enough to stop the expedition, but the two leaders, Hill and Walker, the one a mere court favourite and the other an incompetent, were only too glad to avail themselves of any pretext for retreating.

**80. The treaty of Utrecht, 1713.**—The treaty of Utrecht closed the war for a time. France acknowledged the Iroquois to be British subjects, and ceded to Great Britain Hudson Bay, Newfoundland, and Acadia, "according to its ancient limits."

Yet many important questions remained unsettled. In Acadia, was Britain gaining a vast extent of territory, or only a strip of sea-coast? Were the Abenakis French or British subjects? Above all, was Britain or France to hold the valley of the Mississippi and the Great Lakes, and with them the virtual control of a continent? Any one of these questions carried with it the germ of a future war.

### SUMMARY

There were two parties in French Canada. One wished to confine settlement to the banks of the St. Lawrence; the other favoured plant-

ing outposts throughout the West. The latter party triumphed, and as a first step Detroit was founded. The outbreak of Queen Anne's War, in 1697, again plunged the American colonies into war. In Acadia the French stirred up the Indians against the British colonies. The latter, through their fleet, captured Port Royal, which was renamed Annapolis Royal; but a gigantic naval undertaking directed against Quebec ended in complete failure. The treaty of Utrecht closed the war in 1713.

#### A TROUBLED PERIOD. 1713-1744.

**81. The French build Louisburg.**—While giving up Acadia the French clung to Cape Breton, or, as they called it, Ile Royale. By fortifying this island they hoped to guard the entrance to the St. Lawrence, and also to have a convenient base of operations for the recapture of Acadia at a later date. The south-east shore presented a rock-bound harbour easy of access and defence. Here the French planted a strong fortress, calling it, in the king's honour, Louisburg. Although unattractive to settlers, Louisburg was admirably situated as a fishing-station and as a military stronghold.

**82. Acadia under British rule.**—The French were eager to remove the Acadians to Ile Royale; but the British were equally anxious to have them remain, both because they were necessary to the prosperity of the country and because at Louisburg they would be dangerous neighbours. From the treaty of Utrecht until the outbreak of the next war the Acadian situation was a strange one. Britain owned the country, and yet to enforce ownership had but a handful of men shut up within the fort at Annapolis. The French inhabitants were rapidly increasing. Nor had the French government really given up the Acadians. The governor of Ile Royale was charged with the supervision of Acadian affairs. His agents were constantly going and coming among the Acadians, persuading them to refuse obedience to the British crown. It took ten years to induce the Acadians to become British subjects. They finally took the oath of allegiance on condition that they should not be called upon to take sides against the French or the Indians; they themselves agreed not to take up arms against the British.

83. **French influence in the West.**—Meanwhile, the rivalry of western traders became keener every day. The British of New York were forced, as we have seen, to trade through the Iroquois. The aim of the French was to keep all the Indians at peace, yet to prevent the western tribes from trading with the Iroquois. The goods of the British traders, better and cheaper than those of the French, were a great attraction. True, the Indians liked the taste of French brandy better than that of English rum, but, after all, the latter was much cheaper and had a similar effect. Thus, many were induced to trade at Albany instead of at Montreal.

In 1699 Le Moyne D'Iberville, the hero of the sea-fight off Fort Nelson, realized the dream of the explorer La Salle by founding a settlement at the mouth of the Mississippi. In the ambition of France, Louisiana played a great part. The two colonies, the one on the Gulf of Mexico, the other on the St. Lawrence, were to be joined by a line of forts, making good the French claim to the Mississippi valley and the Great Lakes. By this means the British colonies were to be hemmed in along the Atlantic, and so shut out from western expansion.

84. **Pierre de la Vérendrye and his sons.**—The Frenchmen who were trading in furs beyond Lake Superior had not lost interest in the "Western Sea." The most noted of these traders was Pierre de la Vérendrye, the commander of a little post on Lake Népigon, north of Lake Superior. Vérendrye had listened to Indian tales of a great river flowing into a western sea. Eager to solve the mystery of the unknown land, he applied to the king of France for permission and aid to equip a party of exploration. Permission was readily given, but no aid other than the right to trade with the Indians by the way. The obstacles were great,—the dangers of a strange country swarming with hostile Indians, the labour of building forts in which to store supplies and furs, and the opposition of rival merchants. But great as were the obstacles, greater still was the courage of this valiant Frenchman.

Late in August, 1731, Vérendrye and his party, including

his three sons, a nephew, and a Jesuit priest, reached *Le Grand Portage*, forty miles south-west of the Kaministiquia River, leading over the height of land to the waters flowing towards Lake Winnipeg. While the leader spent the winter here with part of his company, the remainder proceeded to Rainy Lake, where a fort was built. The following spring, the whole party pushed on westwards, descending to the mouth of the Maurepas (Winnipeg) River. At this point a series of misfortunes—the failure of funds, the death of his nephew, and the massacre by the Sioux of twenty-one of his party—checked Vérendrye's explorations for a period of six years.

The course of the Vérendrye travels was marked by a series of trading-posts built, at successive stages, on Rainy Lake, on the Lake of the Woods, at the mouth of the Winnipeg River, on the eastern shore of Lake Winnipeg, on the Assiniboine, on Lake Manitoba, and on the Saskatchewan. The work, well begun by the father, was ably carried on by his sons. The youngest son ascended the Saskatchewan as far as the forks of the river. The elder Vérendrye did not succeed in winning his way through to the "Western Sea," but his perseverance in the face of great difficulties had opened channels of trade running to the heart of the Great West.

### SUMMARY

For about a quarter of a century a troubled peace prevailed. Though she had lost Acadia, France still clung to Cape Breton. Here the French planted the strong fortress of Louisburg, from which point they continued to exert a strong influence over the Acadians. Throughout the West, French and British were keen rivals in the fur trade. In the hearts of the fur traders was ever present the desire to penetrate the unknown West. In search of the "Western Sea," one French trader, Vérendrye, promoted explorations which extended to the head-waters of the Saskatchewan.

### KING GEORGE'S WAR, 1744-1748

85. **Upon the eve of war.**—It was inevitable that the commercial rivalry of the French and British colonists

should lead to a renewal of war. Channels of trade had to be protected by forts, and the erection of forts implied a claim to territory. The issue was clear. Either the British were to be confined to the Atlantic seaboard or the French to the St. Lawrence valley.

Fully alive to the necessity of preparing for the coming struggle, the French began to strengthen their position by the erection of new forts. Once more Niagara was occupied. The governor of New York, not to be outdone by his rivals, built a fort at Oswego, hoping that the Indians, attracted by the cheap goods of the British traders, would pass by Niagara and come to the new post. This was what happened. The French in turn made a move which gave them a great advantage. On Lake Champlain, the military highway between the two countries, where it narrows down to the width of a river, there was a spot called by the English Crown Point. At this outpost the French erected a strong stone fort.

**86. The outbreak of war, 1744.**—The situation was ripe for war, and only the pretext lacking. Now, as at the



SIR WILLIAM PEPPERELL

beginning of the century, a European war was the signal for a renewal of hostilities in America. The news of the War of the Austrian Succession came first to Louisburg. The military governor at this point, acting before the British knew of the war, moved against Annapolis. Despite the weakness of the British garrison and the support of the French by some of the Acadians, the attack was a complete failure.

**87. The capture of Louisburg.**—The attack upon Annapolis angered the British colonists, and drove them to an undertaking in the very madness of which lay the best hope of its success. Louisburg, next to Quebec, was the strongest fortress on the North American continent,



and a constant source of danger to the British fisheries. For a quarter of a century the French had been fortifying this stronghold, sparing neither skill nor money, and the colonists with their raw troops proposed to capture this apparently impregnable fortress. In 1745 the expedition, consisting of four thousand men, set sail under the command of William Pepperell, a merchant and colonel of militia. Commodore Peter Warren joined the colonists with ten ships-of-war.

Warren blockaded the entrance to the harbour and effectually prevented aid from France. Pepperell landed his troops about four miles up the coast, and cannon were dragged over two miles of marsh to the hills in the rear of the town. A French battery was captured and others planted where they could command the fortress. Meanwhile, Warren had captured a French ship-of-war carrying reinforcements and supplies to the garrison. At last, after a siege of seven weeks, during which the town had been almost destroyed, Warren and Pepperell prepared to make a combined attack; the French commander surrendered.

**88. The French lose two fleets.**—The French, enraged at the capture of their great stronghold, sent out a fleet of sixty-six sail under the command of the Duc D'Anville to recover Louisburg. Disaster followed in the wake of this squadron. The loss of several ships in a gale and the sudden death of the admiral removed all hope of success. It was but a shattered remnant of a proud fleet that sailed back to France. In the following year a second fleet, on its way to conquer Acadia, was met by a British squadron and completely defeated.

**89. French designs upon Acadia.**—The French, expecting to capture Louisburg, had already prepared to make a descent upon Acadia. A force of several hundred Canadians under M. de Ramesay, had been sent overland from Quebec to aid in an attack upon Annapolis. Upon hearing of the wreck of D'Anville's fleet, Ramesay fell back and took up his position at Chignecto. Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, alarmed by the movements of Ramesay and his Canadians, stationed Colonel Arthur

Noble with a force of five hundred men in the village of Grand Pré. Ramesay, making a sudden dash in mid-winter, caught the British troops off guard and scattered throughout the houses of the settlement. The surprise was complete, and after a stubborn fight in which many of the defenders, including Noble, were killed, the British surrendered. If the Acadians rejoiced at the misfortune of the British, their joy was short-lived, for Shirley at once sent a fresh force to re-occupy the village.

**90. French and British dealings with the Iroquois.**—And now to turn to the western frontier. Here the balance of power rested with the Iroquois, who, although now nominally British subjects, were yet disposed to avoid a rupture with the French. Both nations were striving to win the friendship of these powerful tribes. British influence in this quarter had been greatly weakened by the failure of two recent expeditions against Montreal, and by the abandonment of an outpost guarding the way to Albany. Just at this time there appeared among the Mohawks a young Irishman named William Johnson, whose popularity with the natives rendered him an invaluable agent of the British. Johnson, who was in charge of an estate upon the Hudson, quickly became a great favourite with the Mohawks, joining them in their games and dances, imitating their dress and manners, they in turn adopting him into their tribe and making him a war chief.

**91. A border warfare.**—Meanwhile, the French and their allies were inflicting upon the British borders all the tortures of Indian warfare. Within the space of four months, we are told, as many as thirty-five war parties made descents upon the enemy's territory, falling upon lone travellers, killing unprotected women and unarmed labourers. For two years longer the war dragged on, until, in July, 1748, there arrived the welcome news of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. Both sides were to give up all conquests. As a consequence, Louisburg was restored to France.

### SUMMARY

The opening of channels of trade made necessary the establishment of military outposts. The French occupied Niagara and a strong point

on Lake Champlain. The British colonists in turn built a fort at Oswego. Only the pretext for war was lacking, and this was furnished by the announcement of another European war. From Louisburg the French made an unsuccessful attack upon Annapolis. This attempt provoked the New Englanders to a counter attack. Under the combined assault of a British fleet and a land force of New Englanders, the stronghold of Louisburg was forced to surrender. Meanwhile, the French, with the aid of their Indian allies, were inflicting upon the New England borders all the cruelties of Indian warfare. In 1748 hostilities were again brought to an end by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

#### PREPARATIONS FOR THE STRUGGLE. 1748-1754

**92. Rival claims of France and Britain.**—That the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was a mere truce, was certainly true as far as America was concerned. In the short period during which the truce continued, there was scarcely a year that did not witness acts of hostility on the part of both French and British. Nor was this unnatural, seeing that the late war had settled none of the differences which had caused it. The claims of France and Great Britain remained unchanged. The French claimed all but the Atlantic seaboard; the British all but the valley of the St. Lawrence.

**93. The Acadian situation.**—When war broke out in 1745, some of the Acadians remained neutral, others aided the French. When, at the close of the war, Louisburg was restored to France, the British saw the necessity of strengthening their hold upon Acadia. In 1748 Chebucto



A MOHAWK CHIEF

harbour was chosen as the site of a new, fortified town, now the city of Halifax. The founding of Halifax caused the French to redouble their efforts to keep a hold upon the Acadians. Two hundred were influenced by threats to

move to Ile St. Jean (Prince Edward Island) and to Ile Royale (Cape Breton). The position of the British was strengthened by the building of a fort at Beaubassin, a step taken in spite of the threats of the Miamaes. Upon a low ridge beyond the river Missaquash, within sight of the British fort, the French erected Fort Beausejour. From this point, as well as from Louisburg, they hoped to retain their control over the Acadians.

94. **The Ohio valley.**—The outposts which guarded French interests in the West were Niagara, Detroit, Michili-



THE OHIO VALLEY

mackinac, and Ste. Marie. Of these the most important was Niagara, controlling as it did both the route to the Upper Lakes and that to the Ohio. To capture this point of vantage would be to cut off the West from Canada. Upon the Ohio the British traders were doing all in their power to seduce the Indians from their friendship with the French, and their efforts were meeting with no little success. To meet this danger the Marquis Duquesne, the governor of Canada, caused two small forts—Le Bœuf and Presqu'île—to be built on the route from Lake Erie to the Ohio.

Meanwhile, the British were not idle. Scarcely had Le Bœuf been erected, when, one December evening, there rode out of the forest before the fort a young officer of the Virginia militia, Major Washington, bearing a letter from the governor of his state warning the French to keep off British territory. Thus did agents, both of Canada and of

the British colonies, take formal possession of the West. Early in the spring of the following year, a small band of Englishmen reached the Ohio River, where now stands the city of Pittsburg, and there proceeded to erect a fort. The work had scarcely been begun when the workmen were interrupted by the sudden appearance of a fleet of canoes manned by Frenchmen. As the newcomers had cannon, resistance would have been madness. The British force promptly withdrew, leaving their rivals in possession of the key to the Ohio valley. This encounter, although bloodless, practically marked the beginning of war, as far, at least, as America was concerned.

Nor was it long before blood was shed. Major Washington, while in command of a detachment engaged in cutting a wagon track in the direction of Fort Duquesne, as the French called their new stronghold, came suddenly upon a scouting party of the enemy. Firing was begun by the British, and the French force, being outnumbered, was forced to surrender. "This obscure skirmish began the war that set the world on fire." Learning of the approach of a larger force of French and Indians, Washington fell back and entrenched himself at a point fittingly called Fort Necessity. Here took place a stubborn fight lasting nine hours, the combatants fighting for the greater part of the time in a down-pour of rain. Washington, whose men were now outnumbered two to one, consented to surrender on condition that he be allowed to march out with all the honours of war. Thus the western campaign of 1754 closed in disaster to the British cause. The loss of Fort Necessity left the country beyond the mountains in the hands of the French, who by their success had completely recovered the good-will and support of the Indian tribes.

### SUMMARY

As far as America was concerned, the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was a mere truce. The causes of the recent war had not been removed. The French claimed all the country except the Atlantic seaboard, the British all but the valley of the St. Lawrence. Preparations were made on both sides for a final struggle. In Acadia the British built Fort Beaubassin, and the French Fort Beausejour. The French outposts in the west were Niagara, Detroit, Michilimackinac, and Ste. Marie. On the Ohio, upon the site of the city of Pittsburg, Fort Duquesne was erected.

## CHAPTER XI

### THE FALL OF NEW FRANCE

#### THE CAMPAIGN OF 1755

**95. Lack of unity in the British colonies.**—Although the New England States had had bitter experience of the barbarities of the French and their bloodthirsty allies, the southern colonies could not be brought to realize that a great struggle was impending and that their enemy was seizing the vantage-ground. Already the French had fully occupied the Ohio valley. The colonial assemblies, jealous of one another and hostile towards their governors, could not be brought to united effort against a common foe.

**96. French and British colonies compared.**—It is interesting to estimate the strength of the two parties in the coming conflict. The British colonies contained a population of over a million; the French, including Acadia, only eighty thousand. At first glance it would seem that victory must inevitably have rested with the British colonies, since they outnumbered their enemy twelve to one. Many circumstances, however, tended to make the rival powers very evenly matched. In the first place, the French colony was united and completely controlled by those in authority, while the British colonies were divided, and were not, even as individual states, ready to follow the lead of their governors. Again, the French-Canadians were trained to war, either by service in the army or by experience of fur-trading and bush-fighting, while the British colonists were farmers or tradesmen, who fought only when forced to defend their borders. In Canada, moreover, the governor, or the commander-in-chief, when war broke out, was given a free hand, while the leaders of the English troops were continually hampered by the interference of the colonial assemblies. Finally, the situation of Canada made it easy to defend,



the expedition against Fort Duquesne. So great were the difficulties of the march that the army made little more than three miles a day; it took nearly two months to reach the neighbourhood of the French fort. The French commander, on learning of the enemy's approach, decided not to await an assault, but to march out and lay an ambuscade for the invaders. Braddock's main body was just entering a thickly wooded ravine when it was met with a shower of bullets from a force of nine hundred French-Canadians and Indians, who lay completely hidden in the surrounding woods. The British regulars stood firm and returned the fire, while the Indians began to close in upon both flanks, still keeping to cover. Sixty-three officers and nine hundred men fell under the deadly fire of the hidden enemy. Braddock had four horses shot under him, and was mounting a fifth when a bullet entered his breast. The fall of their leader was a signal for a general retreat of the invaders.

**99. The British capture Beausejour.**—Meanwhile, on the scene of the eastern conflict, important events had happened. Fort Beausejour, the strongest post in Acadia, had fallen into the hands of the British after a feeble defence. Several smaller French forts on the Bay of Fundy shared the fate of their more powerful neighbour. All Acadia was now in British hands. Fort Beausejour was renamed Fort Cumberland.

**100. The removal of the Acadians.**—Immediately after the fall of Beausejour, the British authorities, feeling that for many years the Acadians, while nominally subject to Great Britain, had in reality been in sympathy with the cause of France and had in some cases aided the French in war, resolved that it was no longer safe to allow this condition of affairs to continue. It was decided to require of them an unconditional oath of allegiance to the British sovereign, and, in the event of their refusal, to remove them from the country. Practically all declined to take the oath, and the work of deportation was at once begun. After some delay, occasioned by the difficulty of securing the necessary ships,



the unfortunate Acadians were placed on board and removed from the country, care being taken to keep families together, and even members of the same village. The total number of exiles, men, women, and children, was about six thousand. Most of them were carried to the British colonies, being scattered here and there from Massachusetts to Georgia.

**101. Johnson defeats Dieskau.**—The third move in the campaign of 1755 was directed against Crown Point, the stronghold from which the French had for many years threatened the New England colonies. William Johnson, because of his influence over the Iroquois, was chosen to lead this expedition. No sooner had he gathered his three thousand provincials than he was joined by a swarm of Mohawk warriors. The whole force moved up to the lower end of Lake George, where, before the close of the season, Fort William Henry was constructed. Baron Dieskau, too impatient to await the advance of the invaders, threw his force of three thousand five hundred upon Johnson's camp. In the battle that followed, the French, though at first victorious, were finally beaten and put to flight, and Dieskau himself was captured. Although the whole retreating force was at his mercy, Johnson made no use of his victory.



SIR WILLIAM JOHNSON

**102. Shirley fails to reach Niagara.**—The fourth and last movement of the year was that against Niagara, entrusted to the command of Major-General Shirley. The Mohawk River and Lake Oneida, with the intervening *portage*, afforded a route to the stream flowing into Lake Ontario at Oswego. Here the news of Braddock's defeat so discouraged the invaders that many deserted. Deciding

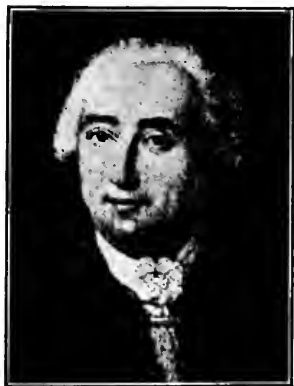
that his force was not strong enough to take Niagara, Shirley reinforced Oswego and then returned to Albany.

### SUMMARY

The British colonies entered into the final struggle for the supremacy of North America with an overwhelming advantage of numbers. They outnumbered the French twelve to one. This advantage was fully offset by other decided advantages possessed by the French—unity, discipline, experience in bush-fighting, and a territory easy of defence. Both Britain and France gave greatly increased aid to their colonies. In the campaign of 1755, the British were defeated in their advance upon Fort Duquesne, and failed in their attempt upon Niagara; but won a victory at Lake George, and completed the conquest of Acadia. The French succeeded in holding Fort Duquesne, Niagara, and Crown Point; but were defeated by the New Englanders and lost their last hold on Acadia.

### THE CAMPAIGNS OF 1756 AND 1757

103. **The Marquis de Montcalm.**—It was not until the spring of 1756, after a year of hostilities in America and on the sea, that Britain and France formally declared war. No war in which Great Britain ever engaged has had a greater effect on the growth of the British Empire than this Seven Years' War, as it is called.



THE MARQUIS DE MONTCALM

France recalled Dieskau and placed in command of her colonial troops the Marquis de Montcalm, "an honourable man, of good morals, brave, and a Christian." Montcalm entered the army at the age of fifteen, so that at the time of his appointment to command in Canada he had seen

thirty years of service. With the commander-in-chief came the Chevalier de Lévis as second in command.

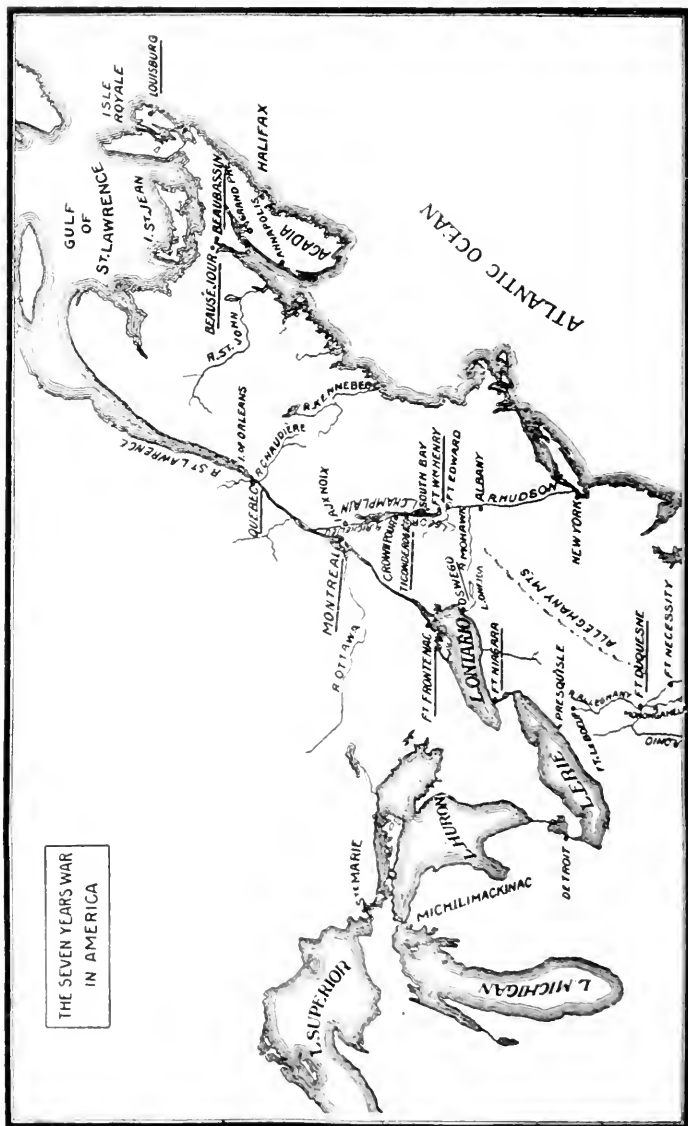
The meeting of Montcalm and Vaudreuil, the governor, was far from friendly. The latter, jealous of power, had hoped to command the French forces in person, and moreover, being a Canadian by birth, he did not get on well with the officers who came out from France. Montcalm, on the other hand, although of a more frank and generous disposition, was often impulsive in his dealings with the governor. Vaudreuil was his superior in office, but vastly his inferior in military capacity.

Meanwhile, the French, alarmed by exaggerated reports of the British plans for the coming campaign, were putting forth every effort to strengthen their defences. Ticonderoga, a point controlling the junction of Lakes Champlain and George, was fortified, Niagara was rebuilt, and the defences of Fort Frontenac strengthened.

**104. The campaign of 1756.**—The year of 1756 was one of failure and disaster for the British, due mainly to the incapacity of their leaders and to frequent changes in command. Shirley, who was in charge of affairs at the opening of the campaign, was succeeded by General James Abercrombie, and he in turn by the Earl of Loudon. Taking advantage of Loudon's slowness, the French made a sudden move against Oswego. Fort, vessels, and stores were all destroyed. This easy victory was one of great importance, as it gave to the French complete control of Lake Ontario.

**105. The campaign of 1757.**—The capture of Oswego had won over the Indian tribes, all except the Mohawks, who were still kept faithful to the British by Johnson's influence. Montcalm's forces were strengthened by a reinforcement of over two thousand regulars from France. Hearing that a British fleet was about to attack Louisburg, Loudon withdrew most of his troops from Lake George to co-operate with this movement. Montcalm seized the opportunity to hurl his whole force of eight thousand men against Fort William Henry. The fall of the fort was inevitable as the result of Loudon's blunder, yet the record of three hundred killed tells of the stubborn stand made by the plucky garrison.

**106. Corruption at Quebec.**—While New France was being faithfully served by Montcalm and his men on the



field of battle, her strength was being sapped by the roguery of dishonest officials at the capital. Quebec was, and had been for years, filled with corruption. At the head of its corrupt citizens stood the intendant Bigot. The intendant, even in time of war, entertained lavishly. All were made welcome to his huge dancing-hall. Gambling was the common feature of his entertainment, the host himself playing for enormous stakes. Bigot, at the head of a group of men as unscrupulous as himself, was guilty of all manner of frauds, perpetrated alike upon the king and upon the people.

### SUMMARY

The cause of France was strengthened by the appointment of Montcalm to command. Ticonderoga was fortified, and the fortifications of Niagara and Frontenac were strengthened. The campaigns of 1756 and 1757 were disastrous to the British, mainly through the incapacity of their leaders and frequent changes in command. Oswego, on Lake Ontario, and Fort William Henry, on Lake George, were captured by the French.

### THE CAMPAIGN OF 1758

107. **William Pitt.**—The campaign of 1757 had been disastrous to the British; the outlook for the coming year was gloomy indeed. But through the prevailing gloom there shot one gleam of sunshine; a change had taken place in the British government; control of the war had passed from the corrupt and incompetent Newcastle to the upright and capable Pitt. The latter had a free hand in the appointment of generals and admirals. The new minister had no lack of self-confidence. "I am sure," he said, "that I can save this country and that nobody else can." And save it he did. Not only did he choose strong leaders in the place of weak, but he put heart into many who had failed under Newcastle's direction.



WILLIAM PITT,  
EARL OF CHATHAM

The campaign of 1758 aimed at the capture of three places, Louisburg, Ticonderoga, and Duquesne. There were radical changes in the leadership. With Pitt, military genius, not social station, carried weight. Loudon was at once recalled, and although Abercrombie was allowed to succeed him, it was only because his staff included Brigadier Lord Howe. It was hoped that the latter would make up for any weakness on the part of the commander-in-chief. To conduct the Louisburg expedition Pitt chose Colonel Jeffrey Amherst, and to support him a staff of three brigadiers, one of them Colonel James Wolfe. A strong fleet, under the command of Admiral Boscawen, was to assist in the attack. Brigadier John Forbes was placed in command of the undertaking against the French stronghold on the Ohio. Two regiments of Scottish Highlanders were sent out to America.



GENERAL AMHERST

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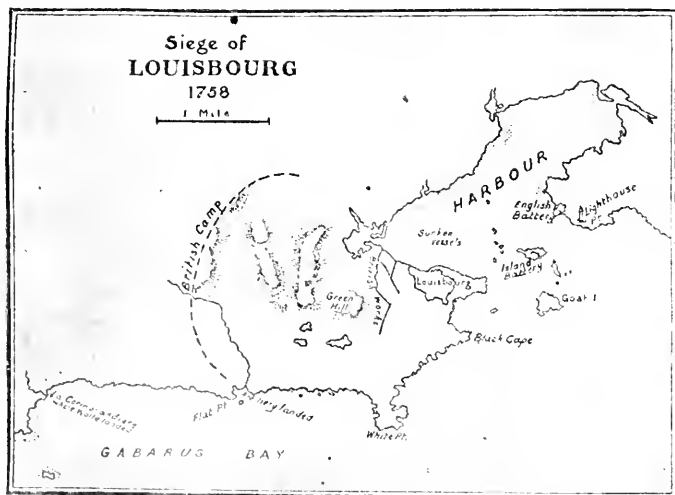
**108. Amherst takes Louisburg.**

—Louisburg, which had been greatly strengthened since its restoration to the French in 1748, was now garrisoned by three thousand regular troops,

while in the harbour rode a fleet of twelve ships, manned by nearly three thousand men. The rocky shore afforded only three possible landing-places in the neighbourhood of the town, and these were strongly fortified. Amherst threatened all three places at once, the real attack being made at Freshwater Cove, which was farthest from the town. Here the defenders had stationed their strongest guard, which offered such a determined resistance that Wolfe, who was in command of the attacking party, at first despaired of success. Later, seeing a possible opening, the gallant young leader threw his entire force into it, and, carrying only his cane, was himself the first into the surf and up the steep face of the rocky shore. The landing was

quickly won, and all the shore guards, now fearing an attack in the rear, abandoned their positions and withdrew into the town.

The siege was mainly a repetition of that conducted by Pepperell thirteen years earlier. Cannon were dragged overland and batteries set up in the rear of the town, while a detachment, circling the harbour, took possession of the battery on Lighthouse Point. From this vantage-ground the island battery was dismantled, and the harbour thus opened to the British fleet. To make matters worse for the



besieged, a chance bomb set fire to their ships. The garrison, now in a hopeless position, surrendered, and Louisbourg passed for the last time into the hands of the British. Amherst hastened at once to the support of Abercrombie at Lake George.

109. **Abercrombie's advance upon Ticonderoga.**—Meanwhile, all was in readiness for the enterprise on Lake George. Abercrombie was stationed at Fort William Henry, with a force of fifteen thousand regulars and provincials, while Montcalm lay entrenched at Ticonderoga with about half that number. On the march against the French fort, the

British army, in a skirmish with a scouting party of the enemy, sustained a great loss in the death of Lord Howe, who, in Wolfe's words, was "the noblest Englishman of his time, and the best soldier in the British army." The advance, however, was continued. Montcalm, instead of waiting an attack upon Ticonderoga, prepared to receive the invaders at a ridge half a mile from the fort, where a strong barricade had been constructed by felling trees. Abercrombie, without waiting for his cannon, flung his men against the face of the barricade. Then followed a frightful slaughter in which the British soldiers, tripped by briars and entangled by fallen trees, were shot down by the hidden enemy. Nineteen hundred killed and wounded was the price paid for Abercrombie's folly.

**110. Capture of Fort Frontenac.**—The gloom overhanging Abercrombie's camp was partly dispelled by the news of a British victory on Lake Ontario. A force of three thousand men had swooped down unexpectedly upon Fort Frontenac, captured the garrison, and seized the entire French fleet of nine vessels carrying a supply of provisions for the western posts. The loss of Fort Frontenac was a heavy blow to the French, for with it was lost control of Lake Ontario. The western posts were now cut off from their base of supplies.

**111. Forbes takes Fort Duquesne.**—When Brigadier Forbes reached Fort Duquesne he found that the garrison had destroyed the fort and had retreated to Lake Erie, as the failure of supplies resulting from the capture of Fort Frontenac had made it impossible to offer resistance. The possession of Fort Pitt, as the newly acquired post was renamed, opened the West to the British and robbed the French of many of their Indian allies.

### SUMMARY

The control of the war had passed into the hands of William Pitt. Many changes were made in the leadership of the British forces. Younger and abler men were placed in command. The plans for the campaign of 1758 aimed at the capture of Louisburg, Ticonderoga, and Duquesne. The close of the campaign left France greatly weakened. In the East, Louisburg had fallen, and in the West Fort Duquesne, while the loss of Fort Frontenac threatened the safety of the western posts. Only at Ticonderoga had the British been repulsed.



## THE CAMPAIGN OF 1759

**112. Wolfe.**—The British plan of campaign for 1759 included three movements. Wolfe, with a fleet in command of Admiral Saunders, was to storm Quebec, while Amherst attacked Ticonderoga, and Brigadier Prideaux, Niagara. The best hope of the nation lay in the youthful commander whom Pitt had picked out for promotion. Wolfe was thirty-two when he assumed command against Quebec, but he had already served in the army for seventeen years. Upon the fields of Dettingen and Culloden he had fought for his king, and at twenty-three he held the rank of lieutenant-colonel. "My utmost desire and ambition," he once said to his mother, "is to look steadily upon danger." And surely his ambition was attained, for never was he cooler than in the thick of battle.

**113. Wolfe begins the siege of Quebec.**—What the French most feared was an invasion by way of Lake Champlain. They therefore stationed a strong force at Ticonderoga, with instructions to hold out as long as possible, and then to fall back upon Crown Point, and, if necessary, as far as Ile aux Noix. Another detachment was stationed at the head of the St. Lawrence to bar any advance from Lake Ontario. While the attention of all was fixed upon the Richelieu and the upper St. Lawrence, there came the startling news that a British fleet was about to attack Quebec. Immediately all available men were hurried to the capital, and the defences made ready for the threatened blow. When Wolfe sailed up the river past the Island of Orleans, there met his view a sight which might well have discouraged even a braver man than he. From



GENERAL WOLFE

the Montmorency to the St. Charles, a distance of eight miles, the shore was lined with entrenchments, behind which lay fourteen thousand Frenchmen, together with their Indian allies. Within the city there was a garrison of two thousand men, and upon its walls were mounted a hundred cannon. Beyond the city the steepness of the river's banks made the heights above inaccessible, save in a few places, and these were carefully guarded.

The force entrusted to Wolfe for the capture of Quebec consisted of nine thousand men of all ranks. In command of the fleet was Admiral Saunders, who was instructed to co-operate with Wolfe in the attack on the city. The fleet included thirty-nine ships-of-war, ten auxiliaries, seventy-six transports, and one hundred and fifty-two small crafts for service during the siege, and was manned by about eighteen thousand men. The total British force before Quebec numbered twenty-seven thousand.

Landing most of his troops upon the Island of Orleans, Wolfe began operations by setting up on Point Lévis a battery whose fire swept the Lower Town, soon making it uninhabitable. His next move was to land a force of three thousand men below the Montmorency, with the object of attacking the enemy upon the flank, and, if possible, in the rear. The French, however, were not to be surprised in this quarter, and the besiegers, although they had caused the besieged great annoyance, were no nearer capturing the city than when they arrived. "You will demolish the town, no doubt," read a message from within, "but you shall never get inside of it." To this Wolfe replied, "I will have Quebec if I stay here till the end of November."

News that Niagara had been attacked and that Amherst was advancing against Ticonderoga had the effect of causing many of the Canadians to desert. The French on two occasions made a determined effort to destroy the British fleet by sending against it fire-ships and burning rafts. Only the daring of the British seamen, who rowed out and towed the burning monsters ashore, saved the fleet from destruction. On the last day of July, Wolfe lost four hun-

dred and fifty men in an unsuccessful attack above the falls of Montmorency.

114. **The failure of Amherst to join Wolfe.**—While Wolfe was vainly striving to enter Quebec, the two western movements under Amherst and Prideaux were in progress. By the end of June, Amherst reached the head of Lake George with eleven thousand men. As he advanced from this point the enemy gave way before him, abandoning Ticonderoga, and then Crown Point. Instead of hastening to the aid of Wolfe, Amherst lost much valuable time in building forts.

115. **Prideaux and Johnson take Niagara.**—Meanwhile, Prideaux was approaching the end of his journey. Garrisoned by a force of six hundred, and well provided with supplies, Niagara offered a determined resistance. Early in the siege Prideaux was killed, and his place was taken by Sir William Johnson. Under the latter's energetic leadership, a strong relief force advancing from the west was defeated, and the garrison forced to surrender. The fall of Niagara completed the isolation of Detroit, Michilimackinac, and the other western posts.

116. **The fall of Quebec.**—The siege of Quebec had, meanwhile, entered upon a new phase. Part of the British fleet had escaped the fire of the French batteries and gathered above Quebec, and the French had stationed a force of fifteen hundred men on the heights beyond the city. Great was the discouragement of the besieged when news arrived of the fall of Ticonderoga, Crown Point, and Niagara, but equally great their joy when it became known that Amherst was not, as they expected, advancing upon Montreal. The report of Amherst's failure cast a gloom over the British camp, which was deepened by the sudden illness of their leader. For five days Wolfe was dangerously ill, but at the end of that time he began to rally, "to the inconceivable joy of the whole army."

As the season was drawing to a close, Wolfe now resolved, as a last resource, to attempt a landing by scaling the heights above Quebec. If successful at this point, he might cut off Montcalm from the base of his supplies. A new purpose in



mind seemed to give him fresh strength of body. Drawing off the detachment from the Montmorency, he gathered a force of thirty-six hundred men on the fleet above the city. At the same time he ordered twelve hundred at Point Lévis to be in readiness to join him. He felt certain that, once he had his troops landed above the city, he could win a decisive victory. The general orders issued to the army the night before the battle, close with the sentence, "The officers and men will remember what their country expects of them."

The place chosen for the intended landing was the *Anse du Foulon*, afterwards called Wolfe's Cove, about a mile and a half from the city. Under cover of a dark night, the 12th of September, 1759, a fleet of small boats drifted silently down the river, one of the foremost bearing the commander-in-chief, who amid the stillness of the night is said to have repeated softly Gray's "Elegy." Under the shadow of his approaching death no more fitting words could have fallen from the hero's lips than

"The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

Landing upon the strand at the base of the heights, twenty-four volunteers led the way up the narrow path. The sound of musket-shots and loud huzzas told Wolfe that the heights had been scaled and the guards overcome. Then the whole force went scrambling up the embankment, grasping trees and bushes. The morning light fell upon the British army drawn up in line of battle about a mile from the city, upon the Plains of Abraham. What seemed impossible had been accomplished.

Montcalm, upon learning what had happened, hurried out to attack the enemy. In irregular order the French advanced, shouting and firing as soon as they came within range. The British stood still until the French were within forty paces, when, at the word of command, they fired a deadly volley into the advancing line. Then followed a general charge with bayonets and broadswords. Wolfe led until he fell, shot through the breast. As he was being carried to the rear, he overheard one of his men cry, "They run; see

how they run!" "Who run?" Wolfe demanded. "The enemy, sir. They give way everywhere!" Turning on his side, the dying man murmured, "Now, God be praised, I will die in peace!" The French, too, lost their leader. That night, within the walls of Quebec, Montcalm lay mortally wounded.



MONTCALM ENTERING QUEBEC AFTER  
THE BATTLE

When told by the physician that he had only twelve hours to live, he remarked, "So much the better. I am happy that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." The British loss in the engagement was fifty-eight killed and five hundred and ninety-seven wounded, while the French had one thousand two hundred men killed, wounded, or taken prisoners. The three French brigadiers fell on the battlefield.

The defeat of the French on the Plains threw Vaudreuil into a panic.

He hurriedly left the city taking most of the troops with him, and began a most disgraceful retreat. Ramesay was left in command with a few hundred soldiers, but these were without provisions. Just as a combined attack by the British army and fleet was about to be made, Ramesay surrendered, and the capital of New France had, for the second, and as it

proved the last, time, passed into British possession. The news of the victory filled Britain with joy, tinged, however, with sadness at the memory of the hero who had fallen in the hour of his triumph.

### SUMMARY

Once more, in the campaign of 1759, the British planned a threefold attack upon the enemy. Wolfe was to storm Quebec, Amherst was to attack Ticonderoga, and Prideaux Niagara. All three undertakings were successfully carried out, Wolfe's capture of Quebec being the crowning triumph of the war.

### THE CAMPAIGN OF 1760

117. **Attempt of the French to retake Quebec.**—During the winter the French concentrated at Montreal and Ile aux Noix. Early in the spring they set out to attack Quebec, which had been left in charge of General Murray. The British general ordered his men under arms and marched out to meet the enemy. In the battle of Sainte Foye which followed, Murray lost about one-third of his army and was forced to retreat within the city. The French,



VIEW OF MONTREAL, 1760

however, whose loss had been much greater, were too exhausted to follow up their advantage at once. They now

began a regular siege, which Murray sustained with great difficulty. As the river cleared of ice, both armies looked eagerly for help from beyond the sea. When at last a ship was sighted, every eye was strained to see the flag floating from her masthead. When the red cross of St. George was slowly unfurled to the breeze, the French force fell back upon Montreal.

**118. The fall of Montreal.**—The course of French rule in Canada was all but run. The outcome of the campaign of 1760 was at no time in doubt. The British plans left the enemy no loophole of escape. One force ascended the St. Lawrence from Quebec, a second entered by Lake Champlain, while the main army, under Amherst, descended the St. Lawrence from Lake Ontario, all converging upon Montreal. Finally, the three armies, numbering seventeen thousand men, encamped about the doomed city. To resist was madness. On September 8th Vaudreuil signed the terms of capitulation. "Half the continent," it has been said, "changed hands at the scratch of a pen."

**119. The peace of Paris.**—It was not until February, 1763, that the terms of peace were finally agreed upon at Paris, and the Seven Years' War was brought to a close. The gains of Great Britain were enormous. France ceded to the British, Canada and all her possessions on the North American continent east of the Mississippi River, except the city of New Orleans and a small adjacent district. She renounced her claims to Acadia, and gave up to the conqueror the Island of Cape Breton, and all other islands in the Gulf and River of St. Lawrence. Spain, in return for Havana, surrendered Florida and all her other possessions east of the Mississippi. France, subject to certain restrictions, was left free to fish in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and off a part of the coast of Newfoundland, and the two little islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon were given her as fishing-stations, on condition that she should not fortify or garrison them.

**120. The French in Canada.**—The peace of Paris marked the close of French rule in Canada. From the history of New France, throughout its two centuries, stand forth



conspicuously the deeds of great men in peace and war: of Cartier, the pioneer navigator of the St. Lawrence; of Champlain and Maisonneuve, those pious colonizers whose faithful labours have found most honourable monuments in the historic cities of Quebec and Montreal; of La



WOLFE'S MONUMENT IN  
WESTMINSTER ABBEY

Salle, that dauntless explorer, whose perseverance in the face of disaster is the marvel of all who read; of Frontenac, that proud, martial spirit, but for whose military genius New France had fallen a half-century earlier; of Talon and Laval, faithful ministers, the one of his king, the other of his church; and lastly, of Montcalm, courtly gentleman, whose gallantry in the hour of defeat did honour to himself and to his country. Truly no country ever had more devoted servants than had New France. Their service would have built up a lasting empire in America but

for ever-present evils, which were still evils in spite of apparent advantages in each: in colonization, the restrictions placed upon immigration; in government, the suppression of the people's voice; in society, the crushing by feudalism of the *habitant's* independence.

### SUMMARY

During the winter of 1670 the French concentrated at Montreal. In the spring they laid siege to Quebec, but were forced to withdraw again to Montreal. Later in the season three British forces converged upon the last standing ground of the French, and Montreal surrendered. By the peace of Paris, 1763, Canada was formally ceded to Great Britain.

## CHAPTER XII

### EARLY BRITISH RULE

1760-1774

**121. The French-Canadians reconciled.**—The passing of Canada from French to British hands caused but slight change in the population. The higher officials, a few seigniors, and many merchants—in all about four hundred—returned to France. The *habitants*, however, chose to remain and to share in the new order of things. War, by interrupting agriculture, had brought them severe privations; and now that peace was restored, they gladly returned to their neglected farms. Doubtless some of the seigniors and clergy hoped soon to see Canada restored to France; but even these, won by the fairness and leniency of British rule, gradually became reconciled to the change which had taken place.

During the first three years after the conquest, the government was military in character. Three districts, Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal, were formed, and over each a military officer presided. It was the aim of General Murray, who held supreme command, to gain the confidence of the French-Canadians by just government. As far as possible they were left to manage their affairs according to their own laws and usages.

**122. The western Indians oppose British rule.**—The occupation of Canada, however, was not completed without a further struggle. Immediately after the surrender of Montreal, General Amherst had sent a small force of British soldiers to garrison the western forts. The neighbouring Indian tribes regarded with disfavour this change of allies, or masters, as the case might be. French traders and agents assured them that their only hope lay in aiding to restore Canada to the French. They were told that the king of

France was preparing a large army to recover Canada, and that the British would soon be driven out of the country. The Indians were the more readily influenced because of their liking for the French and their hatred of the less tactful British. The former had always treated them as friends and allies, while the latter had shown a disposition to regard them as a subject race.

The discontent of the Indians found its storm centre in a chief of the Ottawas named Pontiac. Combining the good and the bad of the Indian character, Pontiac marred courage and generosity with exhibitions of vanity and treachery. His plans for driving out the unwelcome newcomers included a general rising of the western tribes from Michilimackinac to the valley of the Ohio. Everywhere strategy took the place of force. At Detroit, a band of chiefs, headed by Pontiac himself, entered the council-chamber of the commandant, with short muskets concealed under their long cloaks. The plot was foiled, so the story goes, by an Indian maiden who had given warning to the commandant, with whom she had fallen in love. At Michilimackinac, the wily enemy invited the commandant and his men to witness a game of lacrosse outside the fort. While the play was in progress, the ball was purposely thrown close to the gate, whereupon the players, rushing after it, suddenly dashed within the palisades, and, seizing the arms which their squaws had meanwhile smuggled in, quickly mastered the garrison. So successful was the rising as a whole that within six weeks nine forts had fallen, and their garrisons had been either massacred or reserved to be the victims of inhuman torture. News of the peace of Paris proved to the Indians that France had really given up Canada to Great Britain. Two military expeditions restored peace to the troubled frontier. A few years later, Pontiac, last champion of the cause of France in Canada, was murdered by a drunken Illinois warrior.

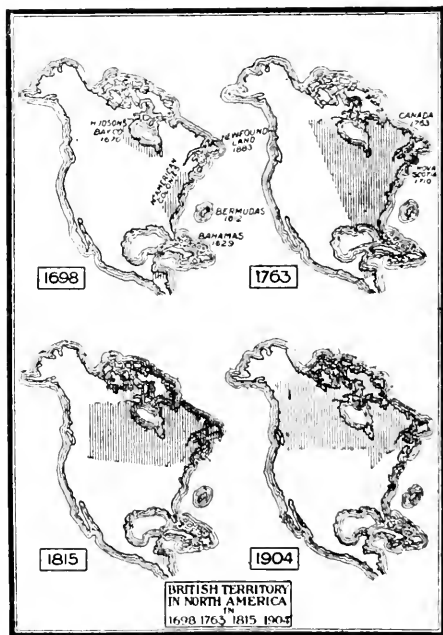
**123. Proclamation of George III.**—In 1763 the proclamation of George III brought about a change from military to civil government. Labrador, Anticosti, and the Magdalen Islands were joined to Newfoundland, while St. John (Prince Edward Island) and Ile Royale (Cape Breton) became

part of Nova Scotia. Canada was made a British province and renamed Quebec. The government was to consist of a governor, an advisory Council, and an Assembly. The members of the latter body were to be required to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, thereby denying certain doctrines of the Catholic faith. General Murray, who was appointed governor, chose a Council of twelve members, including only one French-Canadian; but no

Assembly met, as the French-Canadians were unwilling to take the required oaths. A wise provision was made for fair dealings with the Indians. No private person could buy land directly from them, and purchase could be made only through the governor and from the Indians gathered in council.

During the next ten years the country was in a troubled state, owing to a general uncertainty in regard to the laws. The "new subjects,"

as the French-Canadians were called, held that in the administration of justice their "ancient customs and usages" should prevail. The "old subjects," on the other hand, were of the opinion that the king's proclamation had done away with these, and had introduced British laws. The French-Canadians did not like trial by jury; preferring the decisions of a judge, a form of trial to which they had long been accustomed. The English-speaking citizens,



in turn, objected to the feudal system, being used to holding property in their own name. Fortunately for the peace of the colony, Governor Murray ruled in such a way as to satisfy the majority, composed of over sixty thousand French-Canadians, refusing to be guided by the mere handful of English-speaking citizens, numbering in all about five hundred. That the governor did not admire the character of the "old subjects" may be judged from one of his letters, in which he speaks of them as "men of mean education, traders, mechanics, publicans, followers of the army."

**124. The Quebec Act, 1774.**—The discontent of both "old" and "new subjects" made a change in government absolutely necessary. Sir Guy Carleton, who succeeded Governor Murray, made a careful study of the condition of the province, and then went to England to take part in the discussion of a new constitution. When he returned, it was to put into force the terms of the Act passed by the Imperial Parliament in 1774, known as the Quebec Act. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were extended, on the one side, to the New England States and the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, on the other, to the Hudson Bay Territory. Labrador, Anticosti, and the Magdalen Islands, which had been joined to Newfoundland in 1763, were added to Quebec. The new constitution provided for a governor and an appointed Legislative Council. It was thought "inexpedient to call an Assembly." The Council was to have the power to make ordinances for the "peace, welfare, and good government" of the province. The right of taxation, however, was withheld, except in the case of money raised for local improvements. All disputes relating to property and civil



SIR GUY CARLETON, LORD  
DORCHESTER

rights were to be settled by French civil law, but in all criminal cases British law was to prevail. The Roman Catholics were allowed to retain their religion in all freedom, and their clergy to enjoy their "accustomed dues and rights." Further, they were freed from the necessity of taking any oath whereby they would renounce their faith. In the first Legislative Council, of twenty-three members, nominated by Governor Carleton, there were eight Roman Catholics.

It is not surprising that a measure which made so great concessions to the French met with strong opposition. The English-speaking subjects within the province opposed it on the ground that it substituted French for British law. The Earl of Chatham in debate termed it "a most cruel, oppressive, and odious measure." The British Parliament, however, was influenced by a desire to conciliate the majority of the Canadian people. How wise their decision was, events quickly proved. Within a year the French-Canadians were face to face with the temptation to be disloyal to Great Britain, and the fact that they did not yield is a lasting tribute to the wisdom of the statesmen who framed the Quebec Act.

### SUMMARY

When Canada was transferred to Great Britain the majority of the French colonists remained in the country. The government for the first three years was military in character. The only serious protest against British occupation was a rising of the western tribes under Pontiac. The proclamation of George III, in 1763, provided a new form of government consisting of a governor, a Council, and an Assembly. No Assembly met. For ten years great discontent prevailed, the French and the English-speaking citizens being accustomed to different laws. In 1774 the Quebec Act brought about a better state of affairs. French civil law was employed in disputes relating to property, British law in all criminal cases. The French-Canadians were allowed freedom of religion.

## CHAPTER XIII

### REBELLION AND LOYALTY

1774-1784

**125. The American Revolutionary War.**—The close of the Seven Years' War found Great Britain in possession of seventeen colonies extending along the Atlantic coast from Newfoundland to Georgia, each with a separate government. In view of the natural movement of settlers westwards, the possession of these colonies meant the virtual control of the North American continent. When, upon the Plains of Abraham, Wolfe, with his dying breath, thanked God for his victory, he little thought that, of the continent which he had helped to win for Great Britain, one-half was soon to be torn away amid scenes of rebellion. Yet, even while the peace of Paris was under discussion, some keen-sighted statesmen expressed the fear that the removal of a hostile power from their frontier would render the American colonies too independent of British protection. The justification of this fear is to be found in the events of the American Revolutionary War, which broke out twelve years later.

The cause of the war must be sought alike in the folly of the British government and in the impatience of the American colonists. George III, although honest and eager to do what was best for the empire, was yet short-sighted and obstinate. To make matters worse, he was surrounded by ministers who were too weak to oppose him when he was wrong. The colonists were first irritated by restrictions placed upon their trade with foreign countries. These restrictions led to wholesale smuggling, and this evil, in turn, to the seizure of ships and to frequent rioting. It was at this point that Great Britain decided to tax the colonies in order to help defray the expenses of the late war. The colonists protested that, as they had no representatives in

the British Parliament, they could not fairly be taxed by that body. So strong was the protest that the Stamp Act, the measure which had given offence, was repealed. Unfortunately, light duties were placed upon tea and a few other articles. Then followed the riot, in which a number of colonists, disguised as Indians, threw overboard a cargo of tea; and, in punishment of this lawless act, came the closing of Boston harbour. The outbreak of war was not long delayed. In a skirmish at Lexington began the struggle which ended in the loss to Great Britain of thirteen of her American colonies.

Lying side by side with the rebellious colonies, Quebec could not but play an important part in the war. Strong appeals were made to the French-Canadians to join in the rebellion. Delegates from the colonies criticized the Quebec Act, saying that it represented Roman Catholic tyranny. Later, seeing their mistake in attacking a measure so popular among the French-Canadians, they called upon the latter to rise in the name of freedom. The majority of French-Canadians were, however, indifferent to the cause of the rebellion, being well satisfied with the just rule of Great Britain. The influence, moreover, of the clergy and seigniors was steadily on the side of loyalty. In Montreal and the city of Quebec were to be found the few who sympathized with the rebels, mainly "old subjects" who were discontented at having little share in the government.

Quebec, having resisted the temptation to be disloyal, was made the object of attack at the very outset of the war. By the old Lake Champlain route the invaders entered. Already Crown Point and Ticonderoga had fallen. The province was but ill prepared for war, as there were no more than eight hundred regulars in the colony. To make matters worse, many of the English-speaking citizens of the larger towns were anything but loyal, while the indifference of the French-Canadians, although it kept them aloof from rebellion, made the majority of them useless for active service. Fortunately there stood at the head of the government, in the person of Sir Guy Carleton, one who was both a statesman



and a general. He had been a close friend of Wolfe, and had taken part in the siege of Quebec in 1759.

In the autumn of 1775 the threatened blow fell. General Montgomery, with a force of colonials, captured the forts on the Richelieu and advanced upon Montreal. This place Carleton had wisely abandoned, and had succeeded in reaching Quebec after a perilous journey. A second force of invaders, under General Benedict Arnold, entered the province by way of the Kennebec and Chaudière rivers. Montgomery and Arnold joined forces before the city of Quebec. In view of the strength of the attacking forces and the weakness of the garrison, it speaks well for the generalship of Carleton that the invaders were foiled. In a night attack, Montgomery was killed, Arnold wounded, and the latter's followers, over four hundred in number, were forced to surrender. All winter the Americans hung about the city, but in the spring the arrival of a British fleet forced them to retire to Montreal and later to withdraw from the country. British garrisons again occupied the forts on the Richelieu, and in a naval contest on Lake Champlain, Carleton succeeded in destroying the enemy's fleet.

At this juncture the king, acting upon the advice of an unwise minister, removed Carleton from command, and appointed in his place General Burgoyne, a greatly inferior officer. At the head of a strong force, the new commander set forth upon an expedition against New York. At Saratoga, a short distance down the Hudson River, he allowed himself to be hemmed in by the enemy, and was forced to surrender his entire army. Hampered by the orders of an incompetent war minister, Carleton resigned in 1778, and was succeeded by Sir Frederick Haldimand. In the face of constant danger of invasion and despite the presence of disloyalty within the provinces, the new governor succeeded in holding the outlying forts and even found time to build three canals on the St. Lawrence. For four years more the war dragged on, ending in final disaster to the British forces at Yorktown. By the second treaty of Paris, more commonly called the treaty of Versailles, 1783, Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the thirteen colonies.

The treaty of Versailles made important changes in the southern boundary of Quebec, as fixed by the Quebec Act. Henceforth the line was to follow the St. Croix River to its source, thence to run due north to the "highlands" which separated the rivers feeding the St. Lawrence from those flowing down to the Atlantic. Beyond this point the old boundary line of the province as far as Lake Erie was to remain. Continuing, the line passed through the middle of the Great Lakes as far as the north-west angle of the Lake of the Woods. From the north-west angle of the Lake of the Woods the boundary was to run "on a due west course to the river Mississippi." The discovery at a later date of the fact that the Mississippi took its rise about a hundred miles farther south, gave rise to trouble. In the east also the uncertainty of the Maine boundary led to bitter discussion and almost to war.

**126. The United Empire Loyalists.**—The American Revolutionary War resulted in a very decided gain to the colony. Many thousands of British colonists, refusing to take up arms against their king, were forced by persecution to seek a new home under British rule. These outcasts became known in history by the honourable name of "United Empire Loyalists." During the war the feeling against the Loyalists was bitter in the extreme. Old neighbours and even relatives regarded them as traitors. After the war was over their property in many states was confiscated.



VIEW OF CATARAQUI (KINGSTON)  
Showing the remains of old Fort Frontenac in 1783

The newcomers were warmly welcomed by Governor Haldimand, who, at the close of the war, devoted himself to the task of providing for their settlement. It is estimated that between

forty and fifty thousand Loyalists came to Quebec, the greatest movement taking place in the years 1783 and

1784. By sea to the shores of Nova Scotia, or up the Hudson to the western part of Quebec they came, swelling the population of almost every part of the country. Many settled in Nova Scotia; a smaller number in Cape Breton. In the valley of the St. John River several thousands found a home, and created the province of New Brunswick. A few found their way into the eastern townships of Quebec. The present province of Ontario can trace its beginning to the coming of about ten thousand of these welcome settlers. Upon and about the site of Kingston, in the Niagara peninsula, and even as far west as Detroit, they planted their settlements.

It was no slight sacrifice the Loyalists had made. Many had left valuable estates, built up by years of strenuous toil on the part of their ancestors. Many had given up influential positions, as ministers, judges, officials, or landed proprietors. From homes of comfort, in not a few cases, of luxury, they had stepped forth to face a difficult and often dangerous journey, and the hardships and privations of pioneer life in a new country. In the new home there was but one occupation open to them, namely, farming; and for this the majority were quite unfitted. In striking contrast to the unjust treatment which the Loyalists received at the hands of their late fellow-countrymen, was the kindness of the British government in relieving their distress. The sum of sixteen million dollars was voted for their relief. Free grants of land were made, two hundred acres to each Loyalist. Farming implements, food, clothing, and like necessities were supplied.

The importance to the country of the arrival of the United Empire Loyalists can hardly be overestimated. At their coming, two provinces, afterwards known as New Brunswick and Upper Canada, sprang into being. Influenced by a feeling of hostility towards the people who had driven them from their old homes, the newcomers proved a constant barrier to the designs of the United States upon their northern neighbours; and later, during the War of 1812, many of them laid down their lives in defence of their new homes. In the development of the

country, socially, intellectually, and politically, they largely shared. Men and women who had sacrificed



MONUMENT TO JOSEPH BRANT  
AT BRANTFORD

ease and comfort to preserve their loyalty, were the best material out of which to build a nation. Looking back from to-day we find that of the men who have taken part in the great movements of Canadian history many were of Loyalist stock. The people of the Maritime Provinces are justly proud of the names of Wilmot, Howe, and many others, while in Ontario those of Ryerson, Robinson, and Cartwright are equally a source of pride. To this honour roll belongs the name of the Mohawk chief, Joseph Brant, the brother-in-law of Sir William Johnson, whose fidelity to the cause of Britain won for his

tribe a reserve in Western Ontario, where to-day the name of Brantford recalls the memory of an Indian Loyalist.

### SUMMARY

Within twelve years of the peace of Paris, thirteen of the North American colonies were in revolt against Great Britain. Naturally Canada was urged to join in the rebellion. Resisting the temptation, she was made the object of an unsuccessful attack. In 1783, by the second treaty of Paris, Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the thirteen colonies. Many thousands of British colonists refused to take part in the rebellion, and these, after the war, found a home in Canada. These "United Empire Loyalists," settling in different parts of the country, proved very valuable citizens.

## CHAPTER XIV

### REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT

#### CHANGES IN GOVERNMENT, 1774-1791

127. **General demand for representative government.**—As the number of English-speaking subjects in Quebec increased, the demand for self-government grew. The Loyalists, wherever they settled, added their voice to the cry for an Assembly in which the people would be represented. The Maritime Provinces were the first to enjoy representative government. From 1713 to 1758 Nova Scotia was ruled by a governor and a Council. In 1758 the first representative body met at Halifax. In 1784, as a result of the influx of Loyalists, New Brunswick became a separate province, and only two years later gained an Assembly. Prince Edward Island, which until 1770 formed a part of Nova Scotia, elected its first Assembly in 1773. But while the Maritime Provinces had entered upon the period of representative government, Quebec still continued under the sway of a governor and a Council.

The system of government established by the Quebec Act in 1774 came to an end in 1791. The favourable terms which this Act granted to the French-Canadians had done good service in keeping them loyal during the revolt of the American colonies. The Act had, however, always been distasteful to the English-speaking section, and between the "old" and "new subjects" a feeling of jealousy had arisen. Great confusion prevailed in the administration of the laws. Judges, ignorant of French law, sometimes followed it, oftener ignored it. There was a general desire for a change. The advocates of reform found a strong supporter in Sir Guy Carleton, now Lord Dorchester, who in 1786 again assumed the duties of governor-general. Lord Dorchester's report to the British government

upon the unsettled condition of the colony went far towards bringing about a more satisfactory state of affairs. The report recommended that the colony be divided into two provinces, and that to each be given a constitution suited to the character of its people. This plan was opposed by many who wished to see British laws, language, and institutions forced upon the French-Canadians. Fortunately, wiser counsel prevailed, and the French subjects were generously treated. The author of the Constitutional Act, which brought about the changes proposed by Lord Dorchester, was William Pitt, whose father served Britain so wisely during the Seven Years' War.

**128. The Constitutional Act, 1791.**—The Constitutional Act divided the province of Quebec into Upper and Lower Canada, the old name of Canada being revived. The population of the former was twenty thousand, that of the latter one hundred and twenty-five thousand. According to the instructions received by Lord Dorchester, the Act aimed at making the constitution of the Canadas as like that of Great Britain "as the difference arising from the manners of the people and from the present situation of the province will admit." In each of the new provinces there was to be a governor, an Executive Council and two legislative bodies, corresponding to the king, the Cabinet, and the Houses of Lords and Commons.

The legislature in each province consisted of the Legislative Council and the Assembly. The legislative councillors were usually judges, bishops, or other prominent men. Being appointed by the king for life, they were quite independent of the Assembly. The members of the Assembly were elected by the people. The governor was advised by the Executive Council, and, being usually a stranger in the colony, he was strongly influenced in his actions by the advice of his councillors. The Executive Council, like the Legislative Council, was independent of the Assembly. Often the members of one Council were members also of the other. It is little wonder that trouble soon arose between the two Councils and the Assembly.

While granting such a degree of self-government, Great Britain still retained a strong control over her colonies. The British government continued to levy and collect all duties regulating colonial navigation and commerce. Moreover, all public officials, including the governor-general, were appointed or dismissed at the will of the home government.

The Roman Catholics continued in the free enjoyment of their religion. At the same time one seventh of all the uncleared crown lands was set apart for the use of the Protestant clergy of the colony, a grant which afterwards gave rise to bitter strife in the Canadian legislatures. The criminal law of Great Britain remained in force in both provinces. The people of Upper Canada now enjoyed the privilege of holding land in their own name. In Lower Canada feudal tenure was retained, although even here those who wished might avail themselves of the freehold system.

### SUMMARY

As the number of English-speaking subjects increased, there grew stronger the demand for self-government. There existed, too, great discontent over the administration of law. To meet this state of affairs the Constitutional Act was passed in 1791. The provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were created. In each province there was now a governor, an Executive Council to advise the governor, and two legislative bodies, one elected by the people. English-speaking subjects now enjoyed British civil as well as criminal law.

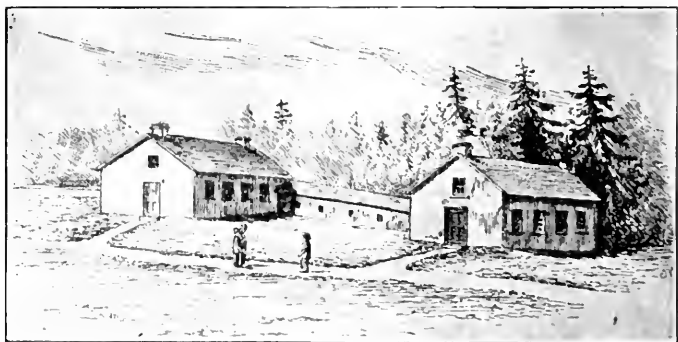
### REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT ON TRIAL, 1792-1812

**129. First representative legislatures in the Canadas, 1792.**—Lord Dorchester was governor-general, not only of the Canadas, but also of the other provinces. Each province had a lieutenant-governor, who conducted the government except when the governor-general happened to visit the province. Generally, however, the government of Lower Canada was administered by the governor-general in person.

At Quebec, in the historic stone building commonly

known as the Bishop's Palace, the two Houses of Parliament of Lower Canada assembled in 1792. The French-Canadians were in a great majority, and a French-speaking member was elected speaker of the Assembly. The first business transacted was the passing of a resolution to the effect that the French as well as the English language should be used in debates and in the reports of the House.

Meanwhile, in the little village of Newark,—the old name for Niagara,—John Graves Simcoe, the lieutenant-governor, opened the first legislature of Upper Canada. Navy Hall, the residence of the lieutenant-governor, was but a humble meeting-place compared with the stately



THE FIRST PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS AT NEWARK

Bishop's Palace. Moreover, the many duties of pioneer life and the great hardships of travel in a new country limited the attendance to seven councillors and sixteen members of the Assembly. Men who had their harvesting as well as law-making to think of, knew the value of time. Within five weeks, therefore, this little Parliament transacted the same amount of business as occupied the attention of the Lower Canadian legislature for seven months.

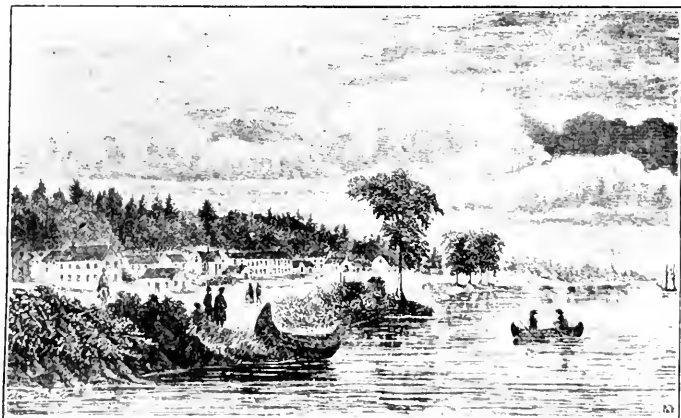
130. **John Graves Simcoe.**—Colonel John Graves Simcoe, the first lieutenant-governor, may well be called the father of Upper Canada. Under his administration the population



increased from twenty-five thousand to thirty thousand within four years. He put forth every effort to attract to Upper Canada those Americans who, although loyal to Great Britain, had been unable to face the hardships of the earlier migration. Of these newcomers the following oath was required: "I, —, do promise and declare that I will maintain and defend to the utmost of my power the authority of the king in his Parliament as the supreme legislature of this province." The governor was all energy, travelling here and there by forest trail or river. The country was opened up by the building of roads where they were most needed. Yonge and Dundas Streets in and leading from Toronto remain as the monu-



JOHN GRAVES SIMCOE



TORONTO IN 1803

ments of the activity of the first governor of Upper Canada.

Simcoe soon saw that Newark was too near to the American

frontier to serve as a permanent capital. His own choice was the site of the present city of London, while Lord Dorchester favoured the selection of Kingston, which had already grown into a prosperous town. A compromise was the outcome, and the seat of government was moved to Toronto, a trading-post across the lake from Newark. With characteristic promptness Simcoe was at once upon the spot, living under canvas until more suitable quarters were provided. The name of the newly chosen capital was changed to York, in honour of Frederick, Duke of York; but many years afterwards, when it had grown to be a city, it resumed its old Indian name, Toronto. In the year 1796 the Canadas suffered a twofold loss in the recall of Lord Dorchester and Lieutenant-Governor Simcoe.

**131. Strife between Councils and Assemblies.**—From the date of the Constitutional Act, 1791, all the provinces enjoyed the boon of representative government; yet everywhere there was discontent at the working of the new system. The Assembly, duly elected by the people, found that its power was limited. The governor and the two Councils, Legislative and Executive, stood together in opposition to the people's representatives. The Executive Council, advising the governor, was independent of the Assembly, and therefore little inclined to consult its wishes. The Assembly steadily claimed control of the revenue of the province. Other causes of discontent among the representatives of the people were the presence of judges in the legislatures, and the interference of the British government in affairs of a purely local nature.

In Lower Canada the members of the official class controlling the Executive and Legislative Councils were of British descent, and were disposed to ignore the French-Canadians. The latter had a majority in the Assembly, outnumbering the English-speaking members four to one. The strife which broke out between the Assembly and the Councils was therefore made much worse by race differences between the two sections of the population. These differences were accentuated by the *Quebec Mercury*, the organ of the English-speaking minority, and by *Le*

*Canadien*, published by the French-speaking majority. Roused by the bitter attacks of *Le Canadien*, the governor-general, Sir James Craig, ordered the arrest of several members of the Assembly who were contributors to the offending paper. Sir James, unfortunately, was so completely under the control of the Councils that he was too ready to suspect the French-Canadians of disloyalty.

In Upper Canada there were no racial jealousies to embitter the political strife. Strife there was, however, between the official class, mostly United Empire Loyalists, and the radical members of the Assembly. Too often the lieutenant-governor allowed himself to be swayed by the advice of his officials, and so was led to disregard even the reasonable demands of the Assembly. Sometimes, on the other hand, the Assembly fell under the control of some rash agitator, and was guilty of acts that antagonized the governor.

The governor of Nova Scotia, Sir John Wentworth, was a characteristic official of the age. A man of the old school of politics, he had more regard for the dignity of the crown than for the will of the people as represented in the voice of the Assembly. Endless trouble arose over the expenditure of money, the Assembly wishing to construct roads and bridges to open up the country, the Council preferring to erect public buildings at Halifax and to pay high salaries to the officials. In New Brunswick a like state of affairs prevailed, the Council rejecting bills passed by the Assembly, and refusing to surrender control of the revenue to the people's representatives.

## SUMMARY

Representative government was established in all the provinces. The first step towards self-government was taken. An obstacle, however, stood in the way of further progress. The two Councils made common cause against the Assembly. Frequently the Assembly passed a bill which was for the good of the people, only to see it thrown out by the Legislative Council. The Executive Council, moreover, being independent of the people, often urged the governor to a course of action of which the Assembly disapproved. It was evident that before the people really ruled, the Executive Council must be made responsible to the Assembly.

## CHAPTER XV

### PROGRESS

1763-1812

**132. The new province in 1763.**—In 1763 the population of the new British province of Quebec was between sixty and seventy thousand. The people for the most part continued to cling to the shores of the St. Lawrence and Richelieu rivers. Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal were



OLD HOUSES NEAR MONTREAL

still the principal centres of settlement. Quebec, the capital of the old French colony, contained seven thousand inhabitants. Montreal, enriched by the profits of the fur trade, boasted a population of nine thousand. Three Rivers, although overshadow-

ed by its more populous neighbours, acquired some importance from its iron mines and from its convenience as a stopping-place for travellers. The Great West, save for a garrison here and there and the wandering traders and missionaries, was still a wilderness.

**133. Description of the French-Canadians.**—When the war was ended, the *habitant* again settled down contentedly upon his little farm. His cottage was small, seldom containing more than two rooms. The partition, in the absence of lath and plaster, was of wood. Strong boxes and benches served as chairs. The rough loom and the boxlike cradle

were familiar objects in the home. Over the fire stood the crane, the brick oven being found only in the houses of the wealthier class. The house of the seignior, although richly furnished, was rarely more than one story high. It often extended one hundred feet in length, and was surmounted by a high, steep roof from which the small dormer windows looked forth; the roofs were built thus steep, in order to shed the snow and to afford plenty of room for bed-chambers in the attic. Clustered about the main building were wash-house, coach-house, barns, and wood-sheds. The house was usually sheltered by groves of trees, and near by were the orchard and the kitchen garden. Not far away lay the village, with its spire-capped church and stone mill showing through the trees.



SOLDIER AND MERCHANT

In dress the upper class followed closely the latest fashions of France, although perhaps neither so rich nor as costly. With men it was the custom to wear the hair curled, powdered, and often tied in a *queue*. Upon state occasions their head-gear took the form of a three-cornered cocked hat. Their wide-frocked coats were made of costly material and gay colours; the waistcoat was frequently ornamented with gold or silver. They wore lace at the neck and wristbands. The knee-breeches were fastened with bright buckles, which served to hold the coloured silk stockings. Shoes adorned with broad buckles at the instep completed a

picturesque costume which would seem strangely out of place beside the modest dress of the gentleman of to-day. The limited resources of the *habitant* demanded a simpler garb. A black homespun coat, gray leggings, woollen cap, and moccasins of cowhide produced a sombre effect, relieved only by the dash of colour in his bright sash. The women, also clad in homespun, indulged their love of colours in their choice of bright kerchiefs for the neck and shoulders.

The French-Canadian was nothing if not sociable. Contented in spirit, he gave himself up whole-heartedly to his



A HABITANT DANCE

amusements. Winter was the season of gaiety. Even with the fate of Quebec in the balance, its defenders found time for dancing. Sleighing and dancing were the common pastimes. Even the older people joined in such youthful amusements as "Hide the Handkerchief" and "Fox and Geese." No pretext for a holiday was lost; a wedding, a baptism, or a birthday was welcomed as an occasion of festivity. May-day brought to the *habitants* special feasting and merry-making at the home of the seignior. Upon the whole, the lot of the *habitant* was not an unhappy one; a home, small but comfortable; a simple yet wholesome diet

of salt meat, milk, and bread, varied in season by an abundance of fresh meat; a summer of toil relieved by a winter of amusement. The hardships of his pioneer days were past, and lack of ambition made him contented with his present lot.

134. **The Loyalist settlements.**—If pioneer days were past in the experience of the *habitant*, they were but beginning for the settlers who were flocking into the other provinces. The year 1783 was a memorable one in the history of the Maritime Provinces. In that year the United Empire Loyalists, sailing from New York, found a ready shelter in the river St. John. At the mouth of the river these loyal refugees built Parrtown, so named in honour of the governor of Nova Scotia. In one season there arrived five thousand settlers, mainly officers and privates who had fought their battles for the king. Others passed on to Prince Edward Island and the Nova Scotian peninsula, skirting the shores of the Bay of Fundy and the Atlantic seaboard. Many were attracted by a fine harbour near the south-west corner of the peninsula. Here, as it were in a night, there sprang up the city of Shelburne with twelve thousand inhabitants. The spot proved ill-chosen, being girt by barren land. The citizens of Shelburne quickly scattered, making for Halifax and other more favoured homes.

Shortly after the arrival of the Loyalists at the St. John River, the surrounding country was formed into the province of New Brunswick. Parrtown was incorporated as a city, and its name changed to St. John. Two years later the seat of government was moved to Fredericton, eighty-four miles up the river. Cape Breton, which had received about eight hundred Loyalists, also became a separate province, with its capital at Sydney. The island, however, did not long remain separate, for in 1820 it again became a part of Nova Scotia. In all twenty thousand Loyalists entered Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. Far outnumbering the original settlers, they put the stamp of their character upon the making of these provinces.

Some of the Loyalists who entered Nova Scotia, passed on to the St. Lawrence, and settled below Montreal. The

greater number of those who removed, however, continued their journey to Lake Ontario. Hither came many more by way of Oswego. In 1784 the great immigration took place. Along the north shore of Lake Ontario, around its western end, and into the Niagara peninsula the newcomers spread. Gradually they extended their settlements over the tempting lands lying between Lake Erie and Lake Huron. Many of the inland Loyalists descended Lake Champlain and the Richelieu. Some of these



ONE OF THE EARLIEST LOYALIST SETTLEMENTS IN UPPER CANADA

Notice on the left the man using the "hominy block." (See Page 130.) From "Upper Canada Sketches," by permission of the author, Thomas Conant, Esq.

passed on to the north and west, peopling the St. Lawrence shore between Fort Frontenac and Montreal. Others, stopping as soon as they had entered Canadian territory, settled between the frontier and the St. Lawrence colonies. This English-speaking section of Lower Canada came to be known as the "Eastern Townships."

135. **Other settlements.**—In addition to the Loyalists many more settlers came during the closing years of the old and the opening years of the new century. Simcoe's



liberal policy caused steady streams of immigration to pour into Upper Canada through Niagara and Oswego. Cape Breton and the neighbouring mainland received an ever-increasing number of Roman Catholic Highlanders, as many as twenty-five thousand in the space of fifty years. The Earl of Selkirk, a Scottish nobleman who was deeply interested in the evicted tenants of Scotland and Ireland, brought out three shiploads of these unfortunates to Prince Edward Island. Encouraged by the success of this venture, the philanthropic earl founded a second colony, called "Baldoon," in the distant west of Upper Canada. In this period Glengarry county also had its beginning, claiming as its founder the distinguished Roman Catholic bishop, Alexander Macdonell. The roll of early colonizers would be incomplete without the name of Colonel Talbot, an Irishman who came to Canada in company with Governor Simcoe. It is said that the colonel supervised the settlement of as many as twenty-eight townships north of Lake Erie.

**136. Pioneer life.**—The story of the pioneers is one of labour and privation. With a little flour and pork and a few hoes and axes, the gift of the government, they entered upon the task of home-making. Grudgingly the unbroken forests gave space for tiny "clearings," and for winding bridlepaths, where no friendly stream furnished a highway. Everywhere trees had to be felled and the ground cleared, first for a cabin, then more widely for seeding. While this work was being done the family slept under the stars upon the ground, deprived even of the shelter of blankets. All the buildings were of logs, for lumber could be made only with the "whip-saw" or the "cross-cut." The cabins were commonly one-roomed, with roofs of bark stuffed with moss and clay. Chimneys were at first made of sticks and clay,



A SETTLER'S HOME IN 1812

later of stone and brick. In strange contrast to the crude surroundings were the few pieces of old furniture, the tall clock, the chairs, and "secretaries," which some of the Loyalists had brought with them from their former homes. Too often the furniture of a home was limited to a bed made of four poles, with strips of basswood bark woven between. Even the making of chairs and tables was postponed until the "clearing" was completed.

Each Loyalist family was provided by the British government with a plough and a cow. One by one the difficulties



INTERIOR OF A SETTLER'S HOME IN 1812

were overcome; the trees were felled, the land was cleared and ploughed, the seed sown, and the grain, commonly Indian corn and wild rice, cut. There still remained the labour of making flour. In the absence of mills, the grain was crushed between stones. Stones later gave place to the "hominy-block," a hard-wood stump with a large hollow burned in the top. In this hollow the grain was pounded with a wooden hammer, or "plumper." Sometimes a stone on the end of a long pole, or "sweep," took the place of the "plumper." At last, in happier days, the grist-mill drove these primitive devices out of use.

In 1787 the failure of a harvest brought on the sufferings of the "Hungry Year." The settlers killed and ate their few cattle, their dogs, their horses. The story is told of how beef bones were passed from family to family to give flavour to the thin bran soup. Roots of all kinds, "ground-nuts," butternuts, and beechnuts, were eagerly sought. Buds of basswood, "lamb's-quarters," "pigweed," "Indian cabbage," and other weeds were common diet. Game of all kinds, deer, rabbits, and pigeons, was plentiful, but powder and shot were very scarce.

To add to the discomforts of these early days, the supply of clothing was scanty. For a year or two after his arrival the Loyalist gentleman might be seen amid his primitive surroundings clad in the fine raiment of his more prosperous days, in wide-flapping frock-coat, lined with velvet, white satin waistcoat, black satin tight knee-breeches, white silk stockings, and silver-buckled shoes. Soon, however, these relics of better days gave place to



COSTUMES IN CANADA IN 1812

From "Life in Canada," by permission of the author, Thomas Conant, Esq.

humble, home-made garments. The women learned the Indian tanning, spun thread from the fibres of the basswood bark, and made clothing of deerskin. Stockings were unknown; and it was not uncommon for the children to spend the long months of the winter season indoors for lack of necessary foot-covering. When leather was at hand every man made shoes for his family, shapeless but comfortable. Later, as wool, flax, and hemp

were raised, and crude hand-looms and spinning-wheels were made, buckskin gave place to linsey-woolsey.

Transportation and communication in these early days were very difficult. The avenues of travel were the lakes and rivers, and the narrow bush-trails leading from one farm to another. Naturally schools and churches were unknown. Fortunately a change soon took place. Closer settlement and better roads brought many advantages. Here and there appeared the little log school-house and the rude church. The grist-mill, too, saved the settlers untold labour. Improved roads and more leisure made mutual help possible. "Frolics" or "bees" for chopping and building, became common. Later, with larger crops and finer buildings, "husking" and "framing bees" came to be the occasions of great festivity. Venison, turkey, pies, "johnny-cake," and "pumpkin-cake" were everywhere in evidence. These delicacies were handled with dishes and spoons made of wood. At a later date wooder utensils gave place to pewter, first brought into the country by the enterprising "Yankee" pedlar.

137. **Progress.**—As in settlement, so also in church matters, in education, and in other spheres, the period **between** 1763 and 1812 was one of beginnings. For some years after the conquest, the Roman Catholic church continued to minister to the colonists almost without a rival. The Loyalists, however, and those settlers who came from Great Britain, were not the men to be deprived for any length of time of the means of worshipping according to their own beliefs. Thus we soon find ministers of other churches entering the provinces and beginning that humble work from which sprang several strong denominations. Within five years of the fall of Montreal we hear of a Presbyterian minister conducting services in the Jesuit College, Quebec. In 1782 the first sermon by a Methodist minister was preached in Halifax. Two years later the Rev. John Stuart, "the father of the Upper Canada church" (Anglican), began his work. The year 1786 saw the erection of the first Protestant church in Upper Canada, among the Mohawks of the Grand River district. By the



honour of producing the pioneer sheet of Upper Canada, "size fifteen by nine and a half inches, price three dollars a year." Next appeared the *Gazette and Oracle* of York, and the *Mercury* of Quebec. *Le Canadien*, the first paper printed wholly in French in Canada, was published in 1806. The *Upper Canada Guardian* of Toronto, edited by Joseph Willcocks, and the *News* of Kingston, complete the list of journals founded during this period.

The fur trade was the first, and for many years the only, source of wealth in Upper Canada. It was carried on both by companies and by individuals; and here as elsewhere the use of rum cursed the traffic and rendered it of little benefit to the country. The earliest export was potash, but even in Governor Simcoe's time the increased area of cleared land caused this industry to decline. The staple product of the country was wheat, and the governor did everything in his power to develop this source of revenue. So rapidly did farming expand that not only were the needs of the settlers met, but there was also a surplus sufficient to supply York and Niagara and to do away with the necessity of importing the staples—flour and pork. Progress in commerce was retarded by the great difficulties of transportation. The only means of transport were rude *bateaux*, built with a draught of two feet, with a width of six, and a length of twenty feet. These were towed and "tracked" up the rivers. In transportation, as in other spheres, change was rapid. As early as 1794 there were fifteen merchant vessels in the Upper Lakes, and six armed boats in the king's service. Soon the canals on the St. Lawrence were enlarged so as to accommodate lake vessels, and the greatest obstacle of transportation disappeared.

Everywhere there was evidence of present and promise of future progress. Here and there through the dense forests of Upper Canada ran well-built roads. A fortnightly mail had been established between the Canadas and the United States. The first raft of timber had been floated down the Ottawa. The first Canadian steamboat, the *Accommodation*, the property of John Molson of Montreal, had been launched upon the waters of the St. Lawrence.

## SUMMARY

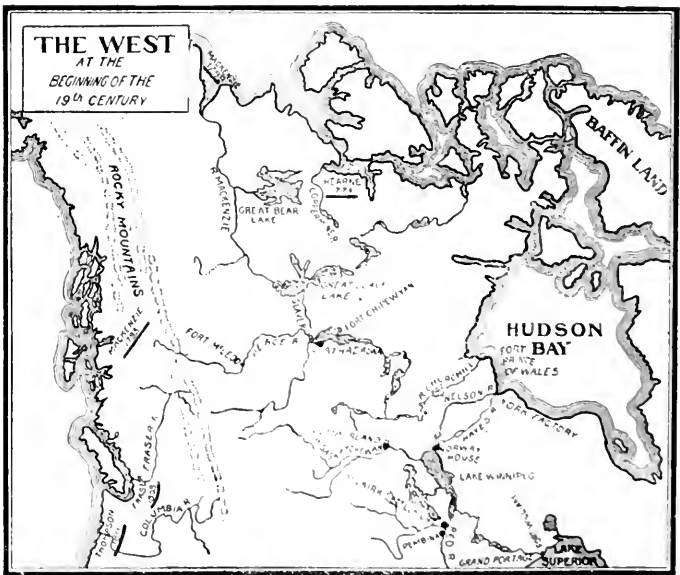
During the half-century after the conquest, the population of Canada clung, in the main, to the shores of the St. Lawrence and the Richelieu rivers. Simplicity marked the life of the *habitant*. Hard working, yet fond of amusements, he lived contentedly in his little two-roomed cottage, undisturbed by even the greatest events happening about him. In Upper Canada it was the day of beginnings. The story of the pioneers, of whom the United Empire Loyalists were a great part, is one of labour and privation. With scanty supplies and crude instruments, the gift of the British government, they set themselves to the task of hewing homes out of the unbroken forests. Scarcity of food and clothing, difficulties of transportation, absence of schools and churches—all these and other hardships were the common lot of these early settlers.

## CHAPTER XVI

### THE WEST

#### THE FUR TRADE, 1763-1812

138. **The Hudson's Bay Company.**—During the last century of the French *régime* the Hudson's Bay Company had held its own throughout the dangers of war and the compe-



tion of trade. Its forts had fallen either into the hands of De Troyes or D'Iberville, but had been restored by the treaty of Utrecht. Though the dangers of war were past, the rivalry of the Canadian traders had still to be met. Despite



the long overland journey, the latter penetrated to the neighbourhood of Hudson Bay, attracting the Indians with showy trinkets, and too often with brandy. The majority of the natives, however, were not easily drawn away from their loyalty to the old company.

**139. Description of the fur trade.**—Winter was the hunting season. The Indians covered a wide extent of country in the chase. After hunting within a radius of four or five miles from their encampment, they moved on to fresh grounds. The marten, squirrel, and ermine were generally caught in traps or snares by the women and children. The men, meanwhile, followed the deer, buffalo, and fox. Having once brought down these victims of the chase, they cut off the choicest parts and left the remainder for the squaws to bring into camp on the following day. A good hunter killed five or six hundred beaver in a season. Usually not more than one-sixth of the beaver skins found their way to the trading-rooms of the fur companies, the greater number being used for tent and bed-coverings and similar purposes.

The trading took place, for the most part, in the summer, when the rivers and lakes were clear of ice. It is true that the Indians near the bay often brought in their furs during the winter, and were made welcome by the traders. In the summer season, however, the inland lakes and streams were dotted with fur-laden canoes making their way from the far west and north. Lake Winnipeg was the meeting-place of the hundreds of natives who journeyed annually to Hudson Bay. The meeting was an occasion of feasting and dancing. As many as five hundred canoes in a year made the long and toilsome journey to York Factory. The strain of incessant paddling and frequent *portaging* bore heavily even upon the strongest. A canoe load, containing at the outset one hundred beaver skins, gradually dwindled as the travellers, weary of their burdens on the *portages*, cast away the heavier furs. So long and laborious was the journey that an Indian was seldom found to undertake it a second time.

As the Indians drew near their destination, they gathered the canoes together and advanced in order. A salute from

their guns called forth a response from the small cannon of the fort. At the landing-place, the chief and his companions were met by the company's traders and formally conducted to the trading-room, the squaws and younger braves meanwhile unloading the canoes. Pipes were at once forthcoming, and for a time the guests smoked in silence. Finally, the chief broke the silence, and in an impressive speech informed the factor what tribes were represented in his company, and how many canoes had arrived. The factor's reply was one of welcome. The chief was next honoured with a gift of clothing. Decked out in a coarse cloth coat, red or blue, lined with baize, waistcoat and breeches of baize, checked cotton shirt, and brightly coloured



stockings, he strutted proudly about the room. This preliminary visit over, the guests were conducted back to their camp in all state, a drummer beating a march. Here the whole company was entertained with brandy, pipes, and tobacco. This entertainment was brought to a close by the pipe of peace, which all the braves and the chief factor joined in smoking. They then fell to the business of trading.

**CARRYING SUPPLIES OVER A PORTAGE** In the early years of the Hudson's Bay Company there was no standard of trade. The Indians took what they could get for their furs; the traders gave no more than they were compelled to give. Competition with the French *coureurs de bois* forced the company's factors to pay more for their furs at the southern posts than they paid farther north. At first, too, the articles given in exchange for furs were beads,

toys, and other trinkets. It was not long, however, before the company changed its policy, and gave the Indians those things which were needed in hunting—guns, powder, powder-horns, shot, hatchets, and knives. Coats, blankets, kettles and tobacco were commonly used in trade. A scale of values was soon fixed to govern trade at all the posts. The value of articles of trade was commonly reckoned in beaver skins. Thus for one beaver skin an Indian might purchase two pounds of powder, four pounds of shot, or two hatchets. A gun could seldom be bought for less than ten beavers. The trading over, the Indians departed, gaily attired in new blankets or coats, carrying their coveted guns, knives, or hatchets—above all, consoled with their beloved tobacco. In the enjoyment of their newly acquired possessions, they forgot, for the time being, the long journey that lay between them and home.

140. **The rivalry of the fur companies.**—The conquest of Canada by Great Britain brought about an immediate and complete change in the fur trade. With the passing of the French *régime*, monopoly and licenses disappeared. The officers of the French company withdrew from the country rather than live under the British flag. The *coureurs de bois* found themselves suddenly cast adrift, lacking the means to keep up the fur trade. Too much accustomed to the life of the woods to return to civilization, they threw in their lot with the Indians, took to themselves native wives, and soon became as wild as their associates.

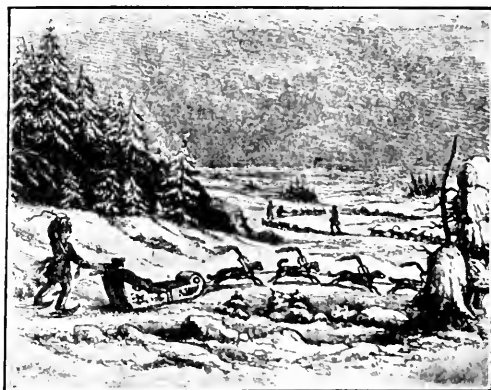


YORK FACTORY

It looked as if the Hudson's Bay Company was to be free from rivalry. Soon, however, the field vacated by the French traders was occupied by others more aggressive. Even before the conquest a few Scottish Highlanders had

engaged privately in the fur trade. After the war these were joined by many discharged British soldiers. The first of the Scottish merchants to penetrate the West was Alexander Henry who appeared at Michilimackinac two years after the conquest; in 1765 Henry obtained from the commandant at Michilimackinac an exclusive license to trade, and three years later opened up the trade route between Michilimackinac and Kaministiquia. Henry was followed by Thomas Curry and James Finlay. These enterprising Scotsmen, careless of danger and hardship, followed in the track of the French explorer Vérendrye, even to the Saskatchewan. The natives, longing to see again their old friends, the French, did not at first welcome these strangers.

The prosperity of the Hudson's Bay Company was again seriously threatened. The factors soon found that the Indians were being intercepted on their way to Hudson Bay. Roused from their inactivity by the discovery of this fact,



FUR TRADERS ON THEIR WAY TO THE  
NORTHERN POSTS

they sent out one of their number to establish an inland post. This movement resulted in the building of Cumberland House, on Sturgeon Lake. From the beginning this post was a great success, the Indians being delighted to escape the

longer journey to the bay. The Montreal traders were now the sufferers. Their men returned empty-handed to Grand Portage, their headquarters on Lake Superior. Not to be outdone, they pushed their traders farther into the Indian country, and nearer to their rival's

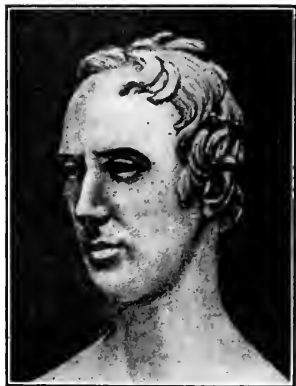
stations. They also began to store their goods at the out-posts over winter, thus saving the time hitherto lost in bringing them in every spring from Grand Portage.

Hitherto the opposition to the Hudson's Bay Company had been that of individual traders. During the winter of 1783-4, the North-West Company was formed. The Montreal partners were to supply the goods used in trade; the "wintering-partners" were to do the actual trading; all were to share in the profits. The business of the newly formed company centred in Montreal and Grand Portage. Goods imported from England were made into articles of trade at Montreal, and these were packed in canoes and forwarded to Grand Portage. The season's furs, brought down by the *voyageurs* on their return trip, were stored in the company's warehouses until shipped to the London market.

The Montreal merchants were greatly strengthened by their organization in their competition with the Hudson's Bay Company. To a great extent the two companies traded over the same territory, their trading-stations being planted in some cases not more than two or three miles apart. At first there was no violence. The rivals met in forest or on stream, shook hands, smoked, broke bread together, and then separated, the one party making for Grand Portage, the other for York Factory. Soon, however, competition grew keener, and greed overcame all feelings of friendliness. Acts of violence became common, resulting at times in murder. One young Nor'-Wester, who went over to the side of the English company, was followed by his former employer, and, on refusing to return, was stabbed to death. Thefts of furs, and brutal assaults upon defenders of outlying stations became frequent. As a rule, the men of the Canadian company were the offenders, being of a more lawless character and less under the control of their employers.

141. **The Selkirk settlement.**—Hitherto men's sole interest in the land west of Lake Superior had been the fur trade. Lord Selkirk, the founder of settlements in Prince Edward Island and in Upper Canada, was the first to realize the im-

portance of the West as a field of colonization. In 1811 he gave his idea practical form by purchasing from the Hudson's Bay Company one hundred and sixteen thousand square



LORD SELKIRK

miles of land in the Red River district. During the same season a group of settlers, seventy in number, led by Captain Miles Macdonell, reached York Factory on Hudson Bay. The winter was spent in building river boats and making other preparations for the journey inland. The following autumn found the newcomers upon the site of the Red River settlement. Here, within the next three years, they were joined by two hundred more colonists. The Nor-

Westers, resenting the encroachment of settlement upon the fur trade, did not take kindly to the intruders. The very existence of the young colony was threatened.

### SUMMARY

In the far West the keenest rivalry prevailed in the fur trade between the French traders and the Hudson's Bay Company. As the former penetrated farther west and north, the English company was forced to pay higher prices to attract the Indians to their forts. The conquest of Canada by Great Britain freed the Hudson's Bay Company of their French rivals, but the place of the latter was soon taken by much more aggressive rivals. These were Scottish traders from Montreal, who at first traded privately but afterwards formed a new organization, the North-West Company, which for many years divided the field of trade with the older company. In 1812 the first attempt at colonization was made, when a group of Selkirk colonists settled on the Red River.

## EXPLORATION, 1763-1812

142. **The north-west passage by land.**—While the rivalry of the fur companies gave rise to many evils, it had at least one beneficial result. In their eagerness to outstrip one another, the traders were gradually exploring the country. The great explorers of the period were all connected with the fur trade. The first of these was Samuel Hearne, a servant of the Hudson's Bay Company. Some northern Indians trading at Prince of Wales Fort, a strong stone structure at the mouth of the Churchill, on one occasion displayed specimens of copper which they had found on the banks of a "great river" in the far north-west. The company decided to send a party in search of this river, hoping that its discovery would solve the mystery of the north-west passage by land. Hearne, who was chosen to lead the party, was instructed to observe any mines discovered, and to take account of the longitude and latitude of every point visited.

143. **Samuel Hearne.**—On November 6th, 1769, Prince of Wales Fort was all astir. Everything was ready for the journey, and as Hearne and his companions passed out through the gate, they were honoured with a salute of seven guns. Despite the most careful preparations, nothing came of the venture. A few days out from the bay, the guide deserted, and a little later more than half of the company followed his example. "They set out," says Hearne, "making the woods ring with their laughter, and left us to consider our unhappy situation, nearly two hundred miles from Prince of Wales Fort, all heavily laden, and in strength and spirits greatly reduced by hunger and fatigue." There was nothing to do but return to the fort.



SAMUEL HEARNE

Hearne lost no time in preparing for a second attempt, and in two months was again ready to depart. This time there was no salute to cheer him on his way. For three months he held a north-westerly course, following streams and lakes, and then struck inland through the barren grounds. The experiences of the travellers were becoming daily more trying. Frequently they fasted for two or three days at a time. For a whole week cranberries, scraps of leather, and burnt bones were their only food. As if such hardships were not enough, a greater misfortune befell them when they were now five hundred miles from Prince of Wales Fort. Their only quadrant, left in the sun one day, was blown over by the wind and broken. Unable any longer to take his bearings, Hearne was forced to turn back and wearily retrace his course to the bay.

Almost immediately after his return, the unfortunate explorer, undaunted by his failures and by the discouraging attitude of the chief factor, again turned his face towards the north-west. This time success awaited him. He was greatly aided by the Indians, whose friendship he was careful to seek. When he reached the Coppermine River, as the object of his search is now called, it was in company with a strong band of natives, who were waging war against the Eskimos. A few days down stream brought the explorers to the sea, the first white men to reach the Arctic Ocean from the interior. Considering the difficulties of the country through which he passed, Hearne's achievement was a notable one. It had the effect of arousing the Hudson's Bay Company to a more aggressive policy.

144. **Alexander Mackenzie.**—The ambition to find the north-west passage by land was still as powerful to lure on ardent explorers as in the days of Vérendrye. To Alexander Mackenzie, partner in the North-West Company, the quest was particularly attractive. His services to the company and his influence among the partners, placed him in a position to undertake a search for the "Western Sea." Fort Chipewyan, on Lake Athabasca, the starting-point of Mackenzie's journey, was one of the outmost trading-posts. About the beginning of June, 1789, the little company of



Canadians and Indians pushed out from the landing-place before the fort. The early stages of the journey, through Slave River and Slave Lake, were uneventful, and before the end of the month the four canoes of the party swept out upon the current of the Mackenzie.

A week later the explorers fell in with a band of wild Indians, who fled at the sight of white men, and were induced only by liberal gifts to approach the strangers. Stories of demon-haunted caves and impassable falls were told by these savages. Mackenzie was unmoved, and even persuaded one of the natives to join him as guide. Every day brought fresh difficulties, and more natives with their terrifying tales. At last, deserted by their guide, the Indians of the party lost heart, and refused to go any farther. Mackenzie begged them to continue for seven days longer, promising to turn back if they did not discover the sea within that time. Before the week was ended the mouth of the river was reached. Mackenzie had known for several days that it was the Arctic and not the Pacific Ocean he was approaching. No time was lost in beginning the return journey. Just one hundred days from the date of their departure, the adventurers landed at Fort Chipewyan.



SIR ALEXANDER MACKENZIE

Three years later Mackenzie prepared to make another dash for the Pacific. In the fall of the year he ascended the Peace River as far as the forks, in order that, passing the winter there, he might be well on his way when the spring opened. As soon as the river was clear of ice, the party, consisting of eight whites and two Indians, embarked in one big canoe, twenty-five feet in length. From the outset the difficulties of the way were extreme. Swift rapids and leaping cascades made progress laborious and even danger-

ous. As the travellers drew near the mountains, the river, hemmed in by steep, rocky banks, presented a succession of roaring cataracts. Portages were frequent, and usually over ground almost impassable. In places the men drew the canoe upstream by grasping the branches of overhanging trees. The discouragement of the men was overcome only by the courage of their leader.

The climax of their difficulties came at the height of land, where a road had to be cut through dense woods. "It was with inexpressible satisfaction," Mackenzie writes, "that we found ourselves on the bank of a navigable river on the west side of the first great range of mountains." This, as we now know, was the Fraser. The descent of this mountain stream brought the travellers varied experiences,—meetings with strange Indians, breaking and rebuilding canoes, shooting dangerous rapids, and toiling over long portages. Discouraged by a report of the great length and dangerous nature of the river, Mackenzie turned back and struck off overland in search of the sea. This he did in spite of a warning that the coast Indians were "as numerous as mosquitoes and of a very malignant character."

At last the weary travellers were rewarded with a glimpse of the Pacific. Upon the face of a rock their leader recorded their visit in the following inscription: "Alexander Mackenzie, from Canada, by land, the twenty-second of July, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three." The hardships of the return journey were lightened by the thought of success and by the certainty of their route. By the middle of August the familiar waters of the Peace were reached. "At length," Mackenzie's journal reads, "as we rounded a point and came in view of the Fort, we threw out a flag, and accompanied it with a general discharge of our firearms; while the men were in such spirits and made such an active use of their paddles that we arrived before the two men whom we left here in the spring could recover their senses to answer us. Thus we landed on the twenty-fourth of August at the place which we left on the ninth of May."

**145. Fraser and Thompson.**—From the ranks of the North-West Company there came two other noted explorers in this period. Simon Fraser gave his name to the river from whose dangers Mackenzie had turned back. He it was who first followed the entire course of that dangerous stream, reaching the sea in 1808. David Thompson spent the early years of his life in the New World as a clerk in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1811 he crossed the Rocky Mountains and descended the Columbia River to the Pacific, only to find that two American explorers had preceded him by six years.

Thus, by the close of this period, two expeditions had reached the Arctic Ocean, and three the Pacific, all by different routes. Vérendrye's dream of a "Western Sea" had been realized.

### SUMMARY

Exploration was a necessary condition of successful fur trading. Samuel Hearne, a representative of the Hudson's Bay Company, after two failures, succeeded in reaching the Coppermine River, and following its course to the Arctic Ocean. Alexander Mackenzie, a partner in the North-West Company, also made his way to the Arctic Ocean by following the great river which now bears his name. In a second journey, Mackenzie reached the Pacific Ocean. Two other Nor'-Westers, Fraser and Thompson, made contribution to the discoveries of this period.

## CHAPTER XVII

### THE WAR OF 1812-14

1812-14

146. **The causes of the war.**—What had happened so often during the French period happened again in 1812: a European war gave rise to hostilities in America. In the Canadas each province was intent upon its political strife, but at the rumour of war each was quick to take up arms in Britain's quarrel. It mattered not that Canadians had no part in bringing about the war.

Almost all Europe was at the feet of Napoleon, the emperor of France. Britain alone was a stumbling-block in his way. To the removal of this obstacle the emperor devoted all the resources of the French empire. In the hope of ruining British commerce, he issued, in 1806, the "Berlin Decrees," closing European ports to British ships and declaring the ports of the British Isles under blockade. In retaliation the British government issued certain Orders-in-Council which required the vessels of neutral powers to touch at British ports and to pay duty before trading with European countries. These restrictions bore heavily upon the United States, whose ships were engaged in an extensive carrying trade. In 1809 the American government passed the Non-Intercourse Act, stopping all trade with France or Great Britain and the nations they controlled, until the restrictions were removed. The bitter feeling of the United States towards Great Britain was increased by the action of the latter power in seizing and searching American ships for deserting seamen. Finally, Great Britain withdrew the Orders-in-Council, and made amends for any injustice done in enforcing the "right of search." It was not too late to avert war, and all differences between

the two nations would have been removed, had it not been that a strong war-party dominated the United States Senate. Although there was much opposition, especially from the New England States, war was declared by the United States on June 18th, 1812.

**147. Danger to the Canadas.**—Whatever the spirit of her people, the position of the Canadas was seemingly desperate. A country of four hundred thousand inhabitants pitted in war against the armies and resources of a nation of eight millions! Upper Canada contained only eighty thousand people. In both Canadas there were only forty-five hundred regular troops, and of these, when war broke out, no more than one third were stationed above Montreal. Arms and other articles of military equipment were scarce. An open frontier a thousand miles long was almost without defence. Nor could the entire Canadian population, small as it was, be counted upon to fight in Britain's cause. Here and there were to be found men who were in sympathy with the invaders. It is not surprising, therefore, that the Americans were confident of success. "On to Canada!" was their cry. "We can take Canada without soldiers," announced the secretary of war. "The expulsion of the English is a mere matter of marching," remarked another politician.

One thing the enemy overlooked, and that was the character of the Canadians. Fighting in a just cause and in defence of their homes, the latter were animated by a spirit which in war usually offsets an enemy's advantage in numbers and wealth. The commander of the forces in Upper Canada, Major-General Isaac Brock, was a man in whom such a spirit breathed in this hour of danger. He had already served in the country for ten years, and he knew and



SIR ISAAC BROCK

valued the local militia as well as the regular troops. Brave, kind, and judicious, he won the confidence and love of his men. Under the inspiration of Brock's leadership the prospects grew brighter. Loyalist volunteers, remembering how they and their fathers had been treated after the Revolutionary War, pressed forward on all sides, more than could be supplied with arms. In Lower Canada the French-Canadians, having fresh in mind the memory of their generous treatment at the hands of the British government, were prompt to vote money and men to repel the invaders.

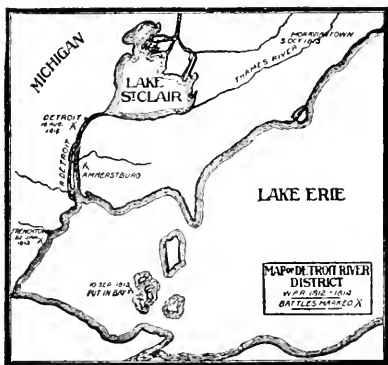
In Upper Canada, which was to bear the brunt of the war, there was an active force of nine hundred and fifty regulars and marines and five hundred and fifty militia. This mere handful of men had to defend seven forts,—from Kingston on the east to St. Joseph on the west,—no one of which could be called a strong post. When Brock called out more militia, he had not even tents to shelter the new recruits and many even lacked shoes on the march. Despite hardships a spirit of loyalty was manifest on every hand. Every man became a volunteer; the rattle of the matchlock became a familiar sound. Even in the field, the musket, if not strapped to the tail of the plough, rested against the snake fence, loaded. Every clearance became a drill-hall, every cabin an armoury. Play was forgotten in the desperate work of war; the dance gave place to the drill. The volunteers of Upper Canada proved worthy to march and fight shoulder to shoulder with the regulars. In their hearts Brock found ready response when, in addressing them on the eve of battle, he said, "Let them [the enemy] be taught that Canadians will never bow their necks to a foreign yoke."

**148. The campaign of 1812.**—The plan of campaign adopted by the Americans was threefold. General Dearborn, commanding the "Army of the North," was stationed at Albany, ready to move against Montreal. The "Army of the Centre," under the command of General Van Rensselaer, threatened the Niagara frontier. At Detroit lay the "Army of the West," under General Hull, whose appointed task was the conquest of Western Canada. That the Maritime

Provinces remained unmolested, except for the attacks of privateers, was due to the opposition of the New England States to the war, on account of the effect on their commerce.

The campaign opened with a victory for the British arms. Michilimackinac fell into the hands of a small force of regulars and Canadian *voyageurs*. This slight success had an important effect, as it caused the western Indians to rally to the side of the British. Tecumseh, the powerful chief of the Shawnees, had already lent his aid with about one hundred and fifty of his followers; he was now joined by six hundred Indians from the West. Meanwhile, General Hull was advancing into Upper Canada from Detroit, and proudly proclaiming "peace, liberty and security" to all who would accept American rule, but destruction to all who should oppose his march to victory. Brock in turn, as acting lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada, issued a proclamation calling on the people to remain loyal, and assuring them of the determination of Great Britain to protect her subjects. Hull, after the issue of his proclamation, had been content to remain at Sandwich, but hearing that the British were advancing, he retreated to Detroit.

Brock, with a mixed force of seven hundred regulars and volunteers, hurried up from York, and, assisted by Tecumseh and his Indians, laid siege to the fort. Just as he was about to storm the place, the enemy surrendered. Twenty-five hundred prisoners, thirty-seven cannon, one hundred thousand cartridges, two thousand five hundred stands of arms, and the control of the state of Michigan, were the fruits of this victory. For this exploit the honour of knighthood was bestowed upon the victorious general.



No sooner had Detroit fallen than Brock hastened back to defend the Niagara frontier. On the way he was met with the news that an armistice had been concluded between the commander-in-chief, Sir George Prevost, and General Dearborn on behalf of the Americans. This was a bitter disappointment to Brock as it prevented an attack which he had already planned upon American territory. The armistice lasted only one month, as the president of the United States refused to ratify it; but this month was well employed by the Americans in hurrying troops and supplies to the front.

To defend the Niagara frontier, Brock had at his disposal



HAULING CANNON DURING THE WAR OF 1812

From "Upper Canada Sketches," by permission of the author, Thomas Conant, Esq.

a force of fifteen hundred men scattered along its whole length of thirty-six miles. On the opposite side of the river were eight thousand six hundred Americans and four hundred Seneca Indians, under the command of Generals Van Rensselaer and Smyth.

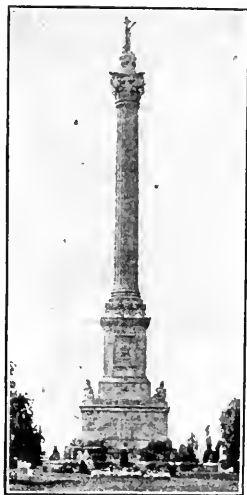
Brock knew that an attack might be expected at any minute, but just at what point it would be delivered he did not know. In the early morning of October 13th, in the midst of a violent storm of wind and rain, the Americans began the crossing of the river at a point immediately opposite Queenston Heights. They were discovered just as they set out, and a vigorous fire, which did much damage, was opened upon them. Brock was at Fort George, seven miles away, when he heard the firing, and immediately he galloped to the scene of action. On the way, he passed the York company, who were also hurrying to the front, and encouraged them by the shout,



"Push on, brave York Volunteers." Soon after he reached Queenston, he found that about four hundred of the Americans had succeeded in landing and had occupied the heights. Determining to dislodge them at once, he put himself at the head of the small force of two hundred men who were already on the ground, and dashed up the hill. A galling fire met the little band, of whom almost the first to fall was their gallant leader. It was impossible to advance; they were forced to retreat, carrying with them the body of their dead general. About two hours later, Colonel Macdonell, Brock's aide-de-camp, who had come up with two companies of the York Volunteers, made another unsuccessful attack on the hill, and was mortally wounded. The Americans retained possession of the heights, and in the meantime had been strongly reinforced. The morning ended in disaster for the British.

In the afternoon the real battle began. General Sheaffe, on whom the command had fallen, arrived with reinforcements. His whole force consisted of about one thousand men, of whom one half were regulars, and one half volunteers, including one hundred and fifty Indians. Recognizing that it would be useless to make an attack in front, Sheaffe determined to surround the enemy.

The movement was completely successful. So surprised were the Americans at the attack from the rear, that they broke and fled. But there was no escape. On three sides were the British, burning to avenge their fallen leader, and on the other the roaring waters of the Niagara at the base of a cliff two hundred feet in height. In an hour the battle was over; those of the Americans who had not fallen in the struggle or had not been hurled over the cliff, surrendered, to the



BROCK'S MONUMENT ON  
QUEENSTON HEIGHTS

number of over nine hundred. The victory was a glorious one, but dimmed by a national disaster. But the spirit that lived in Brock still continued to animate the defenders of the Canadas during the dark days to come, and stimulated them to continue the struggle "to keep the land inviolate."

With the battle of Queenston Heights the campaign of 1812 practically closed, although a futile attempt to invade Upper Canada was made by General Smyth. Everywhere the invaders had been thrust back over the border. Success had put new heart into the militia, and prepared them for the sterner struggle in the following year.

**149. The campaign of 1813.**—By the opening of spring the American forces were greatly increased, and at almost every point outnumbered those of the defenders. At Plattsburg lay an army of thirteen thousand men under General Dearborn, while Sir George Prevost had only three thousand for the defence of Montreal. To oppose twenty-two hundred Americans at Sackett's Harbour, backed by five thousand on Lake Champlain, only fifteen hundred men could be mustered. On the Niagara frontier five thousand Americans faced a force of twenty-three hundred British. Only at Detroit did the British outnumber the enemy.

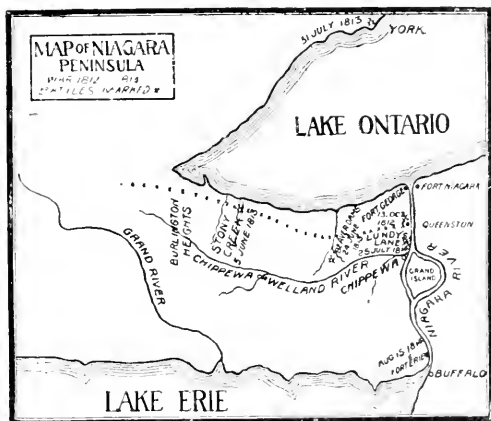


A BRITISH SERGEANT

In danger and hardship the coming campaign was to try to the utmost the courage and endurance of the Canadian people. Great Britain was fully occupied in Europe and could send little aid to her struggling colonies. The situation was made all the more trying by the scarcity of supplies and suitable means of transportation. Salt pork and biscuits were imported from England, while some beef and cattle were brought in from Vermont. These supplies, however, had to be hauled up the St. Lawrence—in winter on sleds, during

the summer in flat-boats. These crude methods of transportation were very slow, and entailed great labour. The urgent call to arms had drawn many of the settlers from their homes, with the result that the farms were in danger of being neglected. In this crisis the Canadian women came forward nobly, and took up the work of brothers and husbands, while the latter fought and bled at the front.

The early engagements of 1813 were widely scattered. In the west Colonel Procter, making a sudden movement from Detroit, fell upon Brigadier Winchester at Frenchtown, and won a stubbornly fought battle, capturing the American general and five hundred of his men, with stores and ammunition. Upon the St. Lawrence, before the break of spring, Colonel Macdonell with a small force of regulars and volunteers made a clever raid upon the enemy. It was the custom



of the British troops to drill upon the ice opposite Ogdensburg. One morning, while going through their usual movements, they gradually shifted their position nearer and nearer to the American side, and, finally, making a dash for the town, they drove out the garrison at the point of the bayonet before it could rally to the defence. Eleven cannon and a large amount of stores and ammunition were captured, and four armed ships which lay in the harbour were burned.

From Sackett's Harbour the American fleet, under Commodore Chauncey, controlled Lake Ontario. Embarking twenty-five hundred men, Chauncey made a sudden descent

upon the little town of York. Important only as the seat of government, York was almost defenceless. General Sheaffe, who happened to be passing through at the time, offered some resistance, but, in the end, thinking the place not worth saving, withdrew to Kingston. The enemy, after

the surrender, wantonly burned the public buildings, pillaged the church and a number of private houses, and ransacked the library. Meanwhile, taking advantage of Chauncey's absence, Sir George Prevost made an attack upon Sackett's Harbour, but, for some unexplained reason, withdrew just as he was on the point of capturing the place.

The war now centred for a time in the Niagara peninsula. From York the American fleet sailed for the mouth of the Niagara River, to co-operate with the land force in an attack upon Fort George. The British forces, withdrawing from Fort George, Chippawa and Fort Erie, concentrated at Beaver Dam, sixteen hundred strong. Before the advance of three thousand Americans, they fell back to Burlington Heights. At Stoney Creek the advance



THE LAURA SECORD MONUMENT

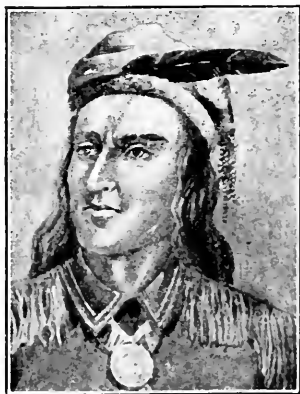
of the pursuers was suddenly checked. An unexpected attack by night, led by Colonel Harvey, threw the camp of the invaders into confusion and forced them to beat a hasty retreat. The two American generals and one

hundred men were captured, together with four cannon. Beaver Dam was now re-occupied and left in charge of Lieutenant James FitzGibbon, commanding about fifty regulars and a band of five hundred Mohawk Indians.

The enemy next planned to surprise FitzGibbon at Beaver Dam. The news of their intention reached the ears of James Secord, a militia officer who had been wounded, and was then living at Queenston. As he was himself unable to warn FitzGibbon, his wife, Laura Secord, undertook the dangerous mission. Driving a cow before her, until she reached the woods, that the enemy might not suspect her real aim, this brave woman set out upon her lonely journey of twenty miles through the dense forest. Added to the difficulty of making a way where there were few paths, was the constant danger of meeting lurking Indians or Americans. At the close of a long day's tramp she delivered her message to the defenders of Beaver Dam. When the American force of nearly six hundred men approached, all was in readiness. Bewildered by the fierce attacks of the Indians, and thinking he was surrounded by superior forces, the American commander surrendered. This victory gave great encouragement to the British.

Both Lake Ontario and Lake Erie witnessed naval encounters during the campaign of 1813. Off Fort Niagara the first engagement took place, between the British fleet of six ships commanded by Sir James Yeo and an American fleet of fourteen sail under Commodore Chauncey. After sustaining a loss of four ships, two captured and two disabled, Chauncey withdrew under shelter of the Fort Niagara battery. A month later a more stubborn fight took place

on Lake Erie, which resulted in a decided victory for the enemy. Commodore Perry, with a fleet built under his own

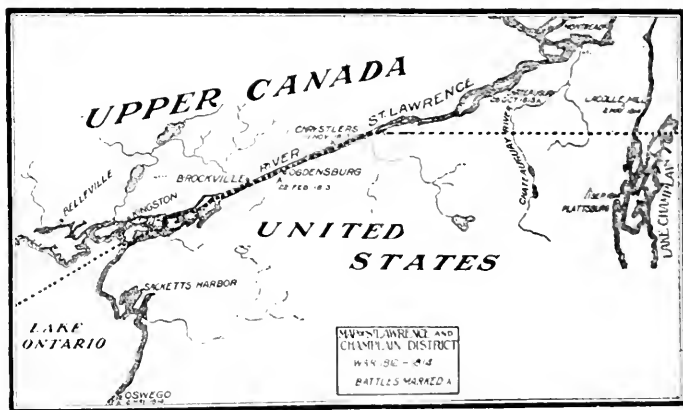


TECUMSEH

direction, and superior in ships, men and guns, defeated Captain Barclay at Put-in Bay and destroyed or captured all his vessels.

Barclay's defeat made it impossible to hold Detroit. Procter, therefore, with his thirteen hundred men, including five hundred Indians under Tecumseh, began a retreat up the Thames, closely followed by General Harrison at the head of three thousand Americans. At Moraviantown, the British and their Indian allies turned to await the enemy. Neglecting all precautions to strengthen his position, Procter fled before the first attack of the enemy. The gallant Tecumseh refused to retire, and fell fighting upon the field which his commander had disgraced by his flight. The next day Harrison burned Moraviantown, and then marched back to Detroit. Procter was afterwards tried by court-martial, and was sentenced to a public reprimand and suspension from rank and pay for six months.

It was late in the season when the Americans began to carry out a plan of attack upon Montreal. The movement was to be twofold, one army descending the St. Law-



rence, the other the Châteauguay, the two to unite at the mouth of the latter river. General Hampton crossed over from Lake Champlain to the Châteauguay River, having at his command a force of about three thousand five

hundred men. At a favourable point upon the river his advance was checked by Colonel de Salaberry with between three and four hundred French-Canadian riflemen and a band of Indians, supported by Colonel Macdonell in command of a regiment of French-Canadian militia. The first attack of the enemy was sustained by De Salaberry, who, when his line was driven in, ordered his bugler to sound the call for the reserves. Colonel Macdonell, reinforced by one hundred Indians, hastened to the aid of his commander. On his way, he instructed his buglers to scatter through the woods and to make as much noise as possible. The sound of many bugles, together with the shouting of the soldiers and the whoops of the Indians, gave the impression that a large army was pressing forward. Fearing that his force would be annihilated, Hampton withdrew in confusion, followed by a withering fire from the victorious French-Canadians. This victory was one of the most brilliant of the whole war.

Equally ill-starred was the fortune of the second army of invasion, which set out from Sackett's Harbour. As the main body, under General Wilkinson, descended the St. Lawrence, a force of twenty-five hundred men protected the rear. Following closely upon his rear-guard and continually annoying it, came a band of eight hundred regulars and militia from Kingston, under the command of Colonel Morrison. At Crysler's Farm the enemy turned about "to brush away the annoyance," but were themselves utterly routed by a force which they outnumbered three to one. Wilkinson, learning of Hampton's defeat on the Châteauguay, gave up the idea of taking Montreal and withdrew across the border.

Save for the burning of Newark by the enemy, and of the



COLONEL DE SALABERRY

American towns from Fort Niagara to Buffalo by the British, the land campaign of 1813 was at an end. The only Canadian territory held by the enemy was Amherstburg, while "the British flag floated over Fort Niagara, and the whole American side of the river was a ruined country."

**150. The campaign of 1814.**—The campaign of 1814 opened with General Wilkinson's advance into Lower Canada with an army four thousand strong. The progress of this force was effectually checked at La Colle mill, a large, two-



THE MONUMENT AT LUNDY'S LANE

storied stone structure about two miles up the La Colle River, a tributary of the Richelieu. Such was the mettle of the defenders, five hundred in number, that they even dared to make a sortie against an enemy eight times as numerous. The Americans, daunted by the successful defence of the mill, and galled by the effective fire of some British gun-boats that now came up the Richelieu, withdrew across the border. Further good fortune rested with the British cause in the capture of Oswego by Sir

Gordon Drummond, assisted by the fleet under Sir James Yeo; but this success was followed by a reverse at Sandy Creek, where two hundred marines and seamen were ambushed and captured by the Americans.

In the Niagara peninsula, however, took place the most decisive struggle of the campaign. Forced back from Chippawa, where they lost five hundred men in a rash attack on a strongly defended position, the British forces, raised by reinforcements under General Drummond to a strength



of twenty-eight hundred, faced an army of four thousand Americans. A road lying within hearing distance of Niagara Falls, now famous as Lundy's Lane, became the scene of the last great battle of the war. From five o'clock until midnight the fight continued. Amid the darkness the combatants fought for the most part hand to hand, so that the loss on both sides was heavy. The fortune of battle swayed from side to side, but victory at last rested with the British. The enemy, leaving their dead and wounded on the field, fled through the darkness to Chippawa. On the following day, throwing their heavy baggage into the river, and destroying the Chippawa bridge, they continued their flight to Fort Erie. The American loss was about nine hundred; that of the British eighty-four killed and five hundred and fifty-nine wounded. In this hard-fought battle the Canadian militia well upheld their high reputation. General Drummond, himself, wrote warmly of their zeal and loyalty, and of their conspicuous gallantry under fire.

The closing event of the war in the Canadas brought humiliation to the British arms. With Napoleon banished to Elba, Great Britain was free to send strong reinforcements to America. Thus it was that Sir George Prevost was enabled to advance against Plattsburg with an army of eleven thousand men, many of them veterans of the Peninsular War. Discouraged by the destruction of the fleet which accompanied him, Sir George turned back from a task which he might easily have accomplished without the aid of ships. He was summoned to England to answer for his conduct, but died before the trial took place.

In the meantime, the Maritime Provinces were not idle. Under the active leadership of Sir John Sherbrooke, the lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia, Maine was invaded, and that portion of the state lying between the Penobscot River and New Brunswick was brought under British rule. Until the close of the war, Sherbrooke administered this territory, the inhabitants of which cheerfully submitted.

The Atlantic seaboard was now blockaded by the British fleets. Backed by one of these, a land force took Washington, and burned its public buildings. Both sides were now

ready for peace. On the day before Christmas the treaty of Ghent was signed. Both sides were to give up all territory acquired during the war. This meant the restoration of Michilimackinac and the seaboard of Maine by Great Britain, and of Amherstburg by the United States. American fishermen lost certain fishing privileges on the shores of British North America which they had hitherto enjoyed.

**151. Effects of the war.**—The Americans had little reason to feel proud of their part in the struggle just ended. They had forced on a war which might have been averted, and had attacked an unoffending people. They had gained absolutely nothing in wealth, in territory, least of all in national honour. Their export trade had dwindled in one year from over one hundred million dollars to less than seven millions, their imports from one hundred and forty millions to fifteen millions. No fewer than three thousand of their merchant vessels had fallen into the hands of British seamen.

The Canadas, too, had suffered greatly. Although enriched by the special expenditure of British wealth during the war, the people had yet to bear the burden of suffering caused by the interruption to industries and by the destruction of valuable property. Canadians, however, unlike their late enemy, had the satisfaction of feeling that they had come out of the war with no little honour. They had entered into the struggle with slight hope of victory; they came out of it conscious of their ability to defend themselves and their country in times of danger.

### SUMMARY

In 1812 war was declared between Great Britain and the United States, and against the Canadas the enemy's attack was directed. The hopes of the defenders of Upper Canada centred in their leader, Major-General Isaac Brock. In the campaign of 1812, the British captured Michilimackinac and Detroit, and won a decisive victory at Queenston Heights. The campaign of 1813 brought victory and defeat alike to the cause of Great Britain—victory at Frenchtown, Ogdensburg, Stoney Creek, Beaver Dam, Crysler's Farm, on Lake Ontario; defeat at York, on Lake Erie, and at Moraviantown. In 1814, the British checked the advance of the enemy at La Colle mill, captured Oswego, and won the last great battle of the war at Lundy's Lane, but were driven back from Plattsburg. The treaty of Ghent closed the war.

## CHAPTER XVIII

### THE STRUGGLE FOR RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

#### DEMAND FOR RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT, 1815-1837

152. **The problem common to the provinces.**—The call to arms in 1812 had hushed political turmoil in all the provinces, but the war which followed had in no way affected the questions at issue between the parties. No sooner had peace been restored than the old differences again claimed public attention. The Constitutional Act had given to the people the privilege of electing an Assembly to represent them in the government. A quarter of a century had passed, and the members of the Assembly found that they had very little power. Many bills passed by them were rejected by the Legislative Council. The latter body was everywhere in league with the Executive Council and the governor. Both Councils were appointed by the governor, and so were independent of the Assembly. In the Maritime Provinces the two Councils sat as one body. Even where the two were separate, many were members of both. The bonds binding these councillors together were often very strong. Many were bound by family ties; most were residents of the same city and members of the same church, the Episcopal. It was this close union of the ruling class that gave rise to the term "Family Compact."

During this period of strife were formed the two great political parties. The members of the Family Compact and their followers were called Conservatives, or Tories; their opponents, Liberals or Reformers. Many serious questions arose between these parties. The Executive Council had control of the crown lands and also of part of the public funds. The Reformers, who gradually gained a majority in the Assembly, protested against the Executive Council having so much power. The public lands and the en-

ture revenue of the country belonged, they said, to the people, and should, therefore, be entirely under the control of the Assembly. They claimed, moreover, that the Executive Council should be made responsible to the Assembly, and that judges and church officials should be excluded, on the ground that there should be no connection between government and either the church or the courts. Many years were to pass before the cause of reform triumphed, and in two provinces political strife was to break into open rebellion.

**153. Lower Canada.**—In Lower Canada the Assembly was at variance with the Legislative and Executive Councils. In this province there was another element of discord; namely, racial jealousy. While both Councils were chosen mainly from the English-speaking population, the Assembly was almost entirely French-speaking. The Assembly demanded a Legislative Council elected by the people. Such an arrangement would have placed the Council as completely under the control of the French-speaking people as was the Assembly.

The standing dispute between the Executive Council and the Assembly was over the control of public funds. The revenue of the province came from three sources. First, there was the revenue arising from duties levied by the crown "towards defraying the expenses of the administration of justice and the support of the civil government of the province." In the second place, there was the "casual and territorial" revenue, derived from the lease of mines and the sale of crown lands. Finally, there were the returns from the duties levied by the provincial Parliament. The first two sources of revenue were controlled by the governor and his Council, only the third being in the hands of the Assembly. The Assembly never ceased to claim the right to control all the revenues of the province. The Executive, however, was quite independent as long as the funds under its control were sufficient to pay the salaries of the officials.

The contest began early in the century. It was the custom of the governor and his Council to pay the salaries of public officials, the "civil list" as it was called, and the running expenses of the government, out of the revenue

under their control. During the administration of the Earl of Dalhousie, who became governor-general in 1820, the funds at the disposal of the Executive failed to cover the "civil list." The Assembly, called upon to vote more money, agreed to do so provided all public accounts were submitted for its approval. Dalhousie refused to comply with this condition, and drew money from the public treasury without the consent of the Assembly.

The Reform party in the Assembly found an able, though rash, leader in Louis Joseph Papineau. At the close of the War of 1812, in which he served as an officer of militia, Papineau entered Parliament, being then twenty-six years of age. Natural ability brought him quickly to the front. The spirit of loyalty which drew him into the war characterized his opening speech of welcome to Dalhousie. "On the day on which Canada came under the dominion of Great Britain," he said, "the reign of law succeeded that of violence." Papineau, however, soon drifted into bitter opposition to the governor. For ten years he was Speaker of the Assembly, and it was in con-



LOUIS JOSEPH PAPINEAU

nection with his re-election to the chair that he came into conflict with Dalhousie. The latter refused to accept him for the office. The Assembly protested, and all business was at a standstill, the governor finally proroguing the House. Public meetings were held all over the province, and a statement of grievances, bearing eighty-seven thousand signatures, was drawn up and forwarded to London. The British government, after a careful consideration of these grievances, made some important changes. The crown duties were placed under the control of the Assembly, on condition that a permanent "civil list" was voted. All judges were to give up their seats in the

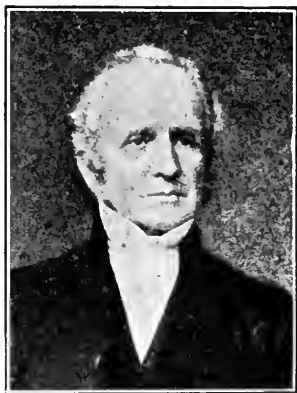
Legislative Council, and bishops were to cease to take part in the government. The two Councils were to be enlarged and made to represent all classes and interests, the members not to be holders of government offices. Lord Dalhousie in 1828 was recalled. His successor accepted Papineau as Speaker and the trouble was, for the time being, ended.

These concessions brought about only a temporary settlement. The British government was willing to have the Assembly control all revenue save the "casual and territorial," provided it voted a permanent "civil list." But the Assembly insisted upon controlling the whole revenue. It was about this time, also, that it began to demand an elective Legislative Council. For a time the "civil list" was voted year by year, but finally the vote of money for the salaries of officials ceased entirely. As the "casual and territorial" revenue was insufficient to meet the demand, the salaries were left unpaid. In 1834 the Assembly embodied its grievances in "Ninety-two Resolutions," which were sent to the British government. It is noteworthy that these resolutions contained nothing to show that the Assembly desired a responsible Executive. The key-note of the document was the demand for an elective Legislative Council. The resolutions contained extravagant praise of the institutions of the United States, which "commanded the affection of the people in a larger measure than those of any other country," and "should be taken as models of government for Canada." A commission was sent by the British government in 1835 to investigate the affairs of the province, one of the commissioners, Lord Gosford, being appointed governor-general. In reporting, the commissioners recommended that the entire revenue be handed over to the Assembly in return for a permanent "civil list," but they advised against an elective Legislative Council. The French-speaking majority in the Assembly, however, was not to be conciliated, and, under the rash leading of Papineau, was drifting swiftly into armed rebellion.

**154. Upper Canada.**—In Upper Canada the Family Compact was strongly entrenched. It dominated the two

Councils; it controlled land grants and appointments to public offices. The ruling faction had so great an influence by reason of this patronage, that it commanded the support of many members of the Assembly. Against this combination the Reform party at first made little headway. The actions of the Family Compact in dealing with the Reformers were often unjust. In the ranks of the Reformers were found some men who, having recently come over from the United States, openly advocated republican principles of government. Little wonder, then, that sons of Loyalists, as many members of the Family Compact were, should be severe in their attitude towards those whom they regarded as disloyal to Great Britain. On the other hand, it must be remembered that among the Reformers were many men of Loyalist blood, who, while strongly advocating responsible government, never wavered in their allegiance to Great Britain.

Two of the most influential members of the governing party were John Beverley Robinson, lawyer, and John Strachan, clergyman. The former, of Loyalist stock, became acting attorney-general of the province at the age of twenty-one. Later he was made chief-justice, and finally, in recognition of his services to the crown, was made a baronet. His ability and fearless honesty won the respect even of his opponents. It was his very loyalty that drew him into actions which, viewed from our day, seem tyrannical. John Strachan, afterwards first Anglican bishop of Toronto, became a member



SIR JOHN BEVERLEY ROBINSON

of the Executive Council in 1815. The most prominent figure in the church, he was at the same time a skilled statesman. More than any other man of the time he directed the policy of the ruling class.

The lieutenant-governors, seeing that they occupied a non-partisan office, might have been expected to limit the undue power of the Family Compact. Unfortunately, the men who held office during this period, Sir Peregrine Maitland, Sir John Colborne, and Sir Francis Bond Head, all made common cause with the ruling faction. They had



BISHOP STRACHAN

served their country on the field of battle, and held high ideals of loyalty. Whenever they saw the Reformers attacking the government, they were too ready to attribute these attacks to disloyalty to the crown.

In Upper Canada a church question made the situation even more difficult. By the Constitutional Act one seventh of the ungranted lands of the province, two and one half million acres in all, was set apart for the support of the "Protestant clergy." This term of the Act was

severely criticised. In the first place the grant was too large. Secondly, the fact that the land granted was not all in one block, but made up of lots numbered "seven" in each township, resulted in the evil of uncleared blocks where the surrounding land was under cultivation. Difficulty arose, also, over the definition of the term "Protestant clergy." At first it was interpreted by the government to mean only the clergy of the church of England. Later it came to include the established church of Scotland. The exclusion of the Methodists and Baptists led to more trouble. Some of these held that the revenue from the Clergy Reserves should be divided among all the Protestant churches. Others, mainly the Baptists, holding that no church should be supported from the public funds, urged that the entire revenue be devoted to secular purposes. The question was discussed everywhere, in pulpit, Parliament, and press, and became an important factor in the trouble



leading to the rebellion. The champion of the Anglican church in this controversy was Dr. Strachan, who severely attacked the other denominations. His attacks called forth a spirited reply from a young Methodist minister named Egerton Ryerson, who became the leader of the "dissenting" churches in their struggle for the secularization of the Clergy Reserves. These two men were afterwards to play important parts in the history of their province, not only in church matters, but also in politics and in education.

One of the first to incur the displeasure of the government in Upper Canada was an eccentric Scotsman, Robert Gourlay, a land agent by occupation. Roused by what he considered the unjust administration of provincial affairs, Gourlay sent to every township a list of questions, the last of which read, "What, in your opinion, retards the improvement of your township in particular, or of the province in general, and what would most contribute to the same?" Public meetings were held everywhere, much to the alarm of the government. Gourlay was twice arrested on the charge of libel, and twice acquitted. Arrested a third time, charged with sedition, he was cast into prison, where he remained for seven months. Finally, in 1819, he was tried at Niagara, convicted, and expelled from the country.

Francis Collins, editor of the *Canadian Freeman*, a paper published in the interests of the Reformers, was the next victim of official displeasure. So bitter were his criticisms of the government and its officials, that he was prosecuted for libel by the attorney-general, John Beverley Robinson, and was convicted, fined, and imprisoned. The people, in full sympathy with the prisoner, paid his fine, and petitioned the governor to set him free. The petition was refused. In the following year, however, Collins was pardoned by the king in response to an appeal from the Assembly.

By far the most notable champion of the popular cause was a hot-tempered Scotsman named William Lyon Mackenzie, the editor of the *Colonial Advocate*, published first at Queenston, later at York. The *Advocate*, whose columns were mainly devoted to attacks upon the government, did

not prove a paying concern, so that Mackenzie's resources were soon at a low ebb. An ill-advised act, however, on the



WILLIAM LYON MACKENZIE

part of some Tory youths, unexpectedly brought him better fortune. The printing press of the *Advocate* was seized and destroyed, and the type thrown into the lake. In the courts Mackenzie recovered damages, but greater than his gain in money was his gain in popularity. He was shortly afterwards elected to the Assembly as member for York. In the Legislature he denounced the government as vigorously as he had through the press. Expelled from the Assembly for the use of immoderate language, he was straightway re-elected. Again and again he was expelled, and as often re-elected. As a final proof of his popularity, when York was incorporated in 1834 under the name of Toronto, Mackenzie was chosen its first mayor.

In 1830 a split took place in the ranks of the Reform party, caused by the extravagance of Mackenzie's views and speech. The more moderate Reformers, such as Robert Baldwin and Egerton Ryerson, stood aloof from the Radical wing of the party. Mackenzie had already gone the length of advocating republican principles, even to the point of breaking with Great Britain. He was in correspondence with Papineau, who had invited concerted action. He had also received and published in his paper a letter from an English Radical named Hume, who prophesied that the course of events in the Canadas must terminate in "independence and freedom from the baneful domination of the Mother Country."

In the elections of 1835 the Reformers won the day. Under the leadership of Mackenzie a "Report on Grievances" was passed by the Assembly and submitted to the British government. This report opened the eyes of British

statesmen to the condition of affairs in Canada. The lieutenant-governor, Sir John Colborne, was recalled, and Sir Francis Bond Head appointed in his place. Yet the British government was not prepared to go so far as to grant responsible government. It is true that the Executive Council in the home government was responsible to Parliament, but in the Canadas the case was, in their opinion, different. Imperial statesmen thought that to grant responsible government to a colony would be to make it practically independent.

Never was a political situation in such need of a tactful ruler. A wise governor might have conciliated even the extreme wing of the Reform party. Unfortunately, Sir Francis Bond Head was too self-confident, and in addition was ignorant of Upper Canadian affairs. He summoned three Reformers to his Council, at the same time telling them that they were not responsible to the Assembly and that he would not necessarily act upon their advice. The three ministers promptly resigned, and Sir Francis, washing his hands of the entire Reform party, cast his influence upon the side of the Conservatives. The Assembly passed an address censuring Bond Head, and refused to vote supplies. The lieutenant-governor dissolved the House. In the elections which followed, Sir Francis, forgetting the non-partisan character of his office, threw himself heart and soul into the cause of the Conservatives. With him reform meant disloyalty. The Reformers were defeated, even Mackenzie failing to win a seat. Bitterly disappointed in his hope of securing reform through political agitation, the impulsive Scotsman resolved to risk all upon the hazardous chance of rebellion.

**155. Nova Scotia.**—In Nova Scotia the struggle between the two political factions was postponed for some years by the depression in trade which followed the war, and the removal of the British fleet from Halifax to Bermuda. Moreover, the government was strong enough to overawe all opposition. The Executive and Legislative Councils constituted one body, and sat behind closed doors, in spite of the protest of the Assembly. In this province, also,

the lieutenant-governor sided with the governing class, looking upon the Reformers as enemies of the crown. One of the most stubborn opponents of all change was Sir Colin Campbell, who became lieutenant-governor in 1834. On the other hand, the ablest advocate of reform was Joseph Howe, a young man of Loyalist blood. Educated under the greatest disadvantages, Howe more than made up for any defects in scholarship by his natural genius and untiring energy.

Halifax, not yet incorporated, was ruled by magistrates appointed by the lieutenant-governor. These officials were independent of the people, and were guilty of the most glaring neglect and dishonesty. The charge of corruption was made publicly in 1835, through the columns of the *Nova Scotian*, of which Howe was editor. Prosecuted for criminal libel, Howe was advised to settle out of court. Conscious that he was in the right, the youthful editor refused to withdraw the charge, and, ignorant though he was of legal procedure, undertook his own defence. In spite of the fact that the chief-justice of the province, who was a member of the Council, presided at the trial and charged directly against Howe, the jury, after an absence from the court room of ten minutes, brought in a verdict of "not guilty." In the following year Howe was elected to the Assembly, where he at once stepped to the front rank of the Reformers. What Papineau and Mackenzie were in the Canadas, Howe was in Nova Scotia, the chosen leader of the people. Like them, he threw in his weight with the cause of reform, and against the tyranny of the government. But in one respect Howe was a greater leader than either of his contemporaries; namely, in his loyalty to the crown. By every constitutional means he strove to attain the ends of reform, but his loyalty to Great Britain kept him clear of even the thought of rebellion.

Under Howe's leadership the Assembly succeeded in bringing about some important reforms. The Council was forced to discontinue its secret sessions. In 1837, "Twelve Resolutions" were drawn up by the Assembly, and submitted to the British government. The result was several

decided changes. Sir Colin Campbell was instructed to form two separate Councils, a Legislative and an Executive, and to choose the members of the latter partly from the Assembly. The chief-justice and the bishop were to be excluded from both Councils. The Assembly was given control of all public funds except the "casual and territorial" revenue. In carrying out his instructions the lieutenant-governor appointed to the Executive Council only such members of the Assembly as were friendly to the ruling faction. The Assembly was by no means satisfied, complaining that the Council was still irresponsible, and refused to vote the "civil list" for more than a year at a time. A second delegation was sent to England to ask for further reform. The Council sent a counter-delegation. The outcome was by no means favourable to the Reformers, as the British government refused to grant an Executive Council entirely responsible to the Assembly. Although the cause of reform was at a standstill, the Reformers never wavered in their loyalty to the crown.



JOSEPH HOWE

**156. New Brunswick.**—In New Brunswick the first success of the Assembly was won in 1832, when the Executive and Legislative Councils were separated. This decision made it possible to appoint members of the Assembly to the Executive Council. The lieutenant-governor, however, refused to do so. Here, as in the other provinces, trouble arose over the revenue. The crown lands were under the management of a commissioner appointed by the lieutenant-governor, and so were beyond the reach of the Assembly. The proceeds from these lands were directed to the payment of the "civil list." In New Brunswick, as in no other province, a large surplus remained. Of this the Assembly claimed control,

but the lieutenant-governor, Sir Archibald Campbell, maintained that the lands belonged to the king, and should not, therefore, be in the hands of the people's representatives.

The cause of reform in New Brunswick found its greatest champion in Lemuel Allan Wilmot, a young lawyer, who entered the Assembly in 1836. Ability and eloquence soon



LEMUEL ALLAN WILMOT

put him at the head of his party, and later won him a place on a delegation sent to England to petition the British government for much-needed reforms. Many of these reforms were granted. The lieutenant-governor was recommended to choose some members of the Executive Council from the Assembly. The Assembly was given control of the "casual and territorial" revenue on condition that it voted a permanent "civil list" of sixty thousand pounds. Sir Archibald Campbell was forced

to resign. Under his successor, Sir John Harvey, the hero of Stoney Creek, the Assembly enjoyed its new privilege. Although there was still much to be gained in the way of reform, the province was kept in a state of comparative peace by the popular rule of the new lieutenant-governor.

**157. Prince Edward Island.**—Prince Edward Island was unfortunate in one at least of its early lieutenant-governors. Arbitrary in the extreme, he insulted the Assembly by frequently dissolving and proroguing it, and for four years neglected even to summon its members. His successors were fortunately less despotic. The great problem in Prince Edward Island was the land question. Large tracts of land were held by landlords living in England. The government tax, called "quit-rent," became very burdensome, and many owners fell in arrears. Later, all arrears were cancelled, and the tax was reduced. For some years the tax was not collected at all, and the owners began to think that

it would be removed. Then, without any warning, the lieutenant-governor sent out agents to collect the rents from the tenants occupying the land. The occupants had no money to pay the tax, and there was general indignation at the lieutenant-governor's action. Public meetings were held, and a petition was drawn up asking for his recall. The petition was granted, and under a wiser ruler the island became more peaceful. Prince Edward Island had to face the problems common to all the provinces. Its Assembly had to pass through a period of agitation to secure a responsible Executive Council, and control of the public funds.

### SUMMARY

The opening of this period, 1815-37, saw in each province two opposing factions: on the one hand, the Family Compact entrenched in the Legislative and Executive Councils and supported by the governor; on the other hand, the party of reform, represented in the Assembly. Save for side issues, such as the Clergy Reserves in Upper Canada, race jealousy in Lower Canada, and the land question in Prince Edward Island, the two problems common to all the provinces were revenue control and the responsibility of the Executive Council to the Assembly. The close of the period found the Assembly everywhere in control of the revenue. The responsibility of the Executive, however, the British government was not yet prepared to admit.

### REBELLION AND UNION, 1837-1841

158. **Popular leaders.**—The cause of reform was at a standstill. In the quarter of a century following the War of 1812 much had been gained, but responsible government, for which the Assemblies were petitioning, was yet withheld. Two courses were open to the Reformers, either to await the outcome of steady constitutional pressure, or to take up arms in rebellion. The choice rested mainly with the leader of the people in each province. Fortunately for the Maritime Provinces, the Reformers were guided by such moderate statesmen as Howe and Wilmot, who were not to be outdone in loyalty by their most conservative opponents. The reform cause in the Canadas was less happily championed. Papineau and Mackenzie,

disappointed in their efforts to gain their ends by political agitation, cast judgment to the winds, and dragged the more excitable members of their party into rebellion.

159. **The rebellion in Lower Canada.**—Acting upon the report of the commission appointed to look into the affairs of Lower Canada, the British government had declined to grant an elective Council or a responsible Executive. Moreover, seeing that the Assembly had refused to vote supplies, the governor-general was instructed to take money from



QUEEN VICTORIA IN 1837

the provincial treasury to pay all arrears in connection with the "civil list." Nothing more was needed to bring the rebellion to a head. Public meetings were held, the people organizing themselves into societies called "Sons of Liberty." Their leader was greeted with cries of "Long live Papineau, our Deliverer!" Associated with Papineau was Dr. Wolfred Nelson, a man of great eloquence and commanding influence. At St. Charles on the Richelieu was erected a "Liberty

Column," about which the rebels mustered. St. Denis was another rallying point, and here Nelson was in command. Meanwhile, the loyal subjects of the province were gathering at Montreal. From Upper Canada came all the regular troops, in spite of the fact that that province also was exposed to a rebellion. The lieutenant-governor, not unwisely, trusted to the militia of the younger province to maintain order within its borders.

Sir John Colborne, commander-in-chief of the loyal forces,



brought a firm hand to bear upon the uprising. Expeditions were sent against the two centres of rebellion. Colonel Gore, after a sixteen-mile march on a stormy night, attacked Nelson's position at St. Denis; but, having only one gun to train upon the stone walls of the distillery in which the rebels were lodged, he was forced to withdraw. Colonel Wetherall, in command of the movement against St. Charles, was more fortunate. The leader of the *habitants* at this point, an American who styled himself "General" Brown, fled at the first shot, and his ill-advised followers were quickly routed. At the news of Wetherall's victory, Nelson's force at St. Denis scattered. The rebellion, save for a hopeless stand in the villages of St. Eustache and St. Benoit, north of Montreal, was now at an end. Very early in the outbreak, Papineau, acting upon the advice of his friends, had sought safety in the United States.

160. **The rebellion in Upper Canada.**—Meanwhile, in Upper Canada, Mackenzie was following the example of Papineau. Breaking completely with the more moderate Reformers, such as Baldwin and Ryerson, he issued a declaration setting forth the grievances against the government and renouncing allegiance to Great Britain. A proclamation, issued by Mackenzie as "Chairman *pro tem* of the Provisional Government of the State of Upper Canada," called upon the people to rise. The mustering place was Montgomery's Tavern on Yonge Street, a few miles north of Toronto. The object of the insurgents was to seize the military stores in the City Hall, but the prompt arming of the loyal inhabitants frustrated the plan. Five hundred militiamen advanced against the four hundred half-armed rebels, and after a slight skirmish put them to flight. Mackenzie fled to the United States, and at once established his headquarters at Navy Island in the Niagara River, where he and his followers, calling themselves "Patriots," established a "Provisional Government." The steamer *Caroline* was made use of to carry supplies to his camp. One night a band of volunteers, acting under instructions from Colonel MacNab, put out from the Canadian shore in rowboats to capture the

enemy's vessel. Though lying under the guns of the American fort, the *Caroline* was cut loose, set on fire, and sent over the Falls. Mackenzie soon abandoned Navy Island, and withdrew to the United States.

Sir Francis Bond Head, who had resigned the governorship rather than carry out the instructions of the Colonial Office to appoint Reformers to his Council, was succeeded by Sir George Arthur. The new governor was inflexible in his determination to punish severely those who had taken part in the rebellion. Matthews and Lount, two of the leaders, were tried, convicted, and hanged. The jails were filled with prisoners. It was only the interference of the home government that prevented further executions.

In the following year, several attempts were made from the United States to invade Canada. At Prescott, a Polish exile named Van Schultz, at the head of two hundred men, was defeated by a party of volunteers from Kingston and captured. Van Schultz and eleven of his men were executed. At Sandwich a party of four hundred and fifty invaders engaged in a fierce struggle with about two hundred of the Canadian militia. There was some bloodshed on both sides, but the invaders were driven back. Three of the prisoners were executed and a number transported, but the majority were pardoned.

**161. Reason for the failure of the rebellions.**—The rebellions of Upper and Lower Canada had ended in miserable failure. Nor could it have been otherwise. Both Papineau and Mackenzie misjudged the feeling of the majority of the people. In Lower Canada the full influence of the church and of the seigniors was upon the side of the government. Only the more thoughtless *habitants* allowed themselves to be carried away by the eloquence of Papineau. To say that the rebellion was of the French-Canadian nation is to malign the majority of a people who had stood loyal to Great Britain in two crises. It would be equally unjust to hold the reform party as a whole responsible for the rashness of its extreme members.

**162. Lord Durham.**—Naturally rebellion gave a setback to reform. It threw discredit upon the Reformers, while it

everywhere strengthened the position of the governing classes. Yet the risings were not without good effect. They impressed upon the British government how great was the need of a change in the administration of the colonies. An increased interest in colonial affairs found expression in the appointment, in 1838, of Lord Durham to be governor-general, and to act as high commissioner to investigate the abuses which had provoked rebellion. Unfortunately Durham's stay in the Canadas was short. Called upon to deal with the instigators of the late rising, he pursued a policy which met with the dis-



LORD DURHAM

approval of the home government. Most of the ring-leaders had fled to the United States. The majority of the prisoners he pardoned, but eight, including Nelson, he banished to Bermuda. The home government disallowed this decree, and so severely was the governor criticized that he resigned and sailed for England. Short as was his administration, it was long enough to admit of his obtaining a grasp of the political situation in all the provinces.

The now famous "Durham's Report," issued in January, 1839, is one of the most remarkable documents relating to the history of Canada. Durham sent agents to each province to inquire into the state of the government and the grievances of the people. He also invited the lieutenant-governors of the Maritime Provinces and members of their Legislatures to meet him in conference at Quebec. The report, based upon facts thus carefully gathered, criticized fearlessly the existing provincial governments, asserting that "while the present state of things is allowed to last, the actual inhabitants of these provinces have no security for person or property, no enjoyment of

what they possess, no stimulus to industry." The report contained, among others, the following recommendations: that Upper and Lower Canada be united, in order to remove race jealousies; that the Executive Council be made responsible to the Legislature; that an intercolonial railway be built, with a view to uniting all the provinces; and, finally, that municipal institutions be established.

163. **The Union Act, 1840-41.**—The imperial government lost no time in acting upon the suggestions made in Lord Durham's report. In 1839 Mr. Poulett Thomson was appointed governor-general, and entrusted with the task of bringing about the proposed change. The question of union was laid before the Legislature of Upper Canada and the special Council of Lower Canada, which had conducted the affairs of that province during the rebellion. As both bodies favoured the proposal, the imperial government in 1840 passed a measure entitled, "An act to reunite the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada and for the government of Canada." The Act came into force in the following year, 1841. It provided for a Legislative Council of not less than twenty members, appointed by the crown, and for a Legislative Assembly in which each of the united provinces would be equally represented, in all by eighty-four members. The English language only was to be used in the legislative records. Each Legislative Assembly was to have a duration of four years, unless dissolved by the governor within that time. A session of the Legislature was to be held at least once a year. All revenue over and above the expenses of the government, including the "civil list" of £75,000 fixed by the Act itself, was to be under the control of the Assembly.

## SUMMARY

Two courses were open to the advocates of responsible government, either to allow steady constitutional pressure to bring about a change, or to take up arms in rebellion. In the Maritime Provinces the Liberals, restrained by the moderation of Howe and Wilmot, never wavered in their loyalty. In Upper and Lower Canada, however, rebellions broke out under the rash leadership of Mackenzie and Papineau. Few were found to follow the standard of revolt, and the outbreak was quickly suppressed. The British government now took a greater interest in

colonial affairs, and sent out Lord Durham to inquire into the cause of the rebellions. Durham's Report led to the passing of the Union Act. Upper and Lower Canada were united and given equal representation in a common Legislative Assembly.

### TRIUMPH OF RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT, 1841-1848

**164. The first union Parliament.**—After the union the instructions of the British government to the governor-general were to administer the affairs of the province "in accordance with the well-understood wishes and interests of the people." He was to call to his Council and employ on public service those who had obtained "the general confidence and esteem of the province." The governor must oppose the wishes of the Assembly only when "the honour of the crown or the interests of the empire were deeply concerned." In addressing the members of the first union Parliament, the governor expressed himself as bound by the principles of responsible government. Several years, however, were to elapse before the responsibility of the Executive was fully adopted as a working principle in government.



LORD SYDENHAM AND TORONTO

Lord Sydenham—Mr. Poulett Thomson had been so honoured for his services in bringing about the union—summoned the first union Parliament to meet at Kingston in 1841. An Executive Council was appointed from both parties, including Mr. W. H. Draper, a pronounced supporter of the Family Compact, and Mr. Robert Baldwin, the recognized leader of the Upper Canadian Reformers. There were at least four parties in the Assembly: the Family Compact Tories, the moderate Tories, the moderate Reformers, and the radical Reformers. The coalition

plan did not prove a success, and in the following year Draper and the other members of his party were forced to resign. A new administration was formed, which represented the Reformers of both sections of the country. This was the La Fontaine-Baldwin ministry, so named from the two leaders, Mr. Louis H. La Fontaine of Lower Canada, and Mr. Robert Baldwin of Upper Canada. This plan of adopting a double name was continued, with one exception, down to the time of confederation.

**165. The triumph of responsible government in Canada.**—The members of the Family Compact, while submitting gracefully to the change brought about by the Union Act, were watching for an opportunity to regain their old influence. The opportunity came, after the death of Lord Sydenham, with the appointment of Sir Charles Metcalfe as governor. Sir Charles, being a ruler of the old school, was not disposed to recognize the principle of responsible government. Holding such views, he was not long in breaking with the La Fontaine-Baldwin ministry. His first unconstitutional act was the appointment of officials without consulting his ministers. The latter at once resigned office. A general election followed, the outcome of which was eagerly watched in all the provinces.

The contest was bitter, both the governor and his late ministers having many strong supporters. Sir Charles claimed that, as he represented the crown, he had the right to make appointments upon his own authority. The ministers, on the other hand, contended that they, as the representatives of the people, should be consulted in the choice of all officials. The governor found a staunch supporter in Dr. Egerton Ryerson, who wrote several pamphlets in defence of the former's action. The case of the ministers was ably upheld by a young Scotsman, George Brown, the founder of the *Globe*, the leading organ of the Reform party. When the election returns were in, it was found that the Conservatives had a majority, and that the governor had been sustained. Mr. Draper formed a new ministry. The successful candidate for Kingston in this election, it is interesting to note, was Mr. John Alexander Macdonald. The entry into public

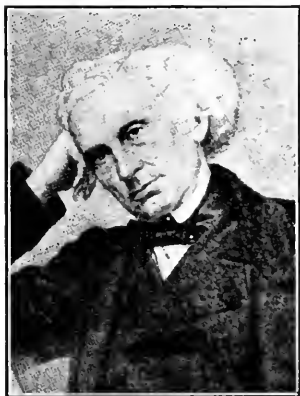
life of George Brown and John A. Macdonald was an important event in the history of Canada.

In 1844 the seat of government was moved from Kingston to Montreal. In the following year Sir Allan MacNab introduced the Rebellion Losses Bill, which aimed at compensating those persons who had suffered loss of property during the recent rebellion in Upper Canada. The sum of £40,000 was voted for this purpose. Immediately a similar demand was made on behalf of the loyal citizens of Lower Canada. A proposal to make a further grant of £10,000 for this purpose roused a storm of indignation. The French-Canadian loyalists protested that the amount was too small, while the Upper Canadians were bitterly opposed to granting anything to those whom they regarded as rebels. Upon this scene of tumult came Lord Elgin, the son-in-law of Lord Durham. It was clear from the outset that the newly appointed governor, being a man of great political wisdom, would consult the wishes of the Assembly. A year later an election took place, in which the Reformers won by a large majority. The Conservative ministry, from which Mr. Draper had retired two years earlier, was forced to resign. Lord Elgin at once called upon the leaders of the Reform party, La Fontaine and Baldwin, to form a new government, by this act fully recognizing the principle of responsible government. Since that date, 1848, no Canadian governor has violated this principle.

**166. Triumph of responsible government in the Maritime Provinces.**—Meanwhile, in the Maritime Provinces the course of events in the Canadas had been closely watched. Conservatives and Reformers alike had looked with hatred upon the rebellions, forgetting their political differences in their sympathy with the cause of loyalty. When, in connection with the union of the Canadas, the governor-general was given instructions regarding responsible government, the question arose whether these applied to all the provinces. The Reformers claimed that they did. Sir John Harvey, who was then lieutenant-governor of New Brunswick, submitted the question of responsible government to a vote of the Assembly. Owing to the governor's popularity, the

Assembly rejected the proposal by a majority of one. Sir John Harvey's successor, Sir William Colebrooke, was inclined to favour the ruling classes; yet, in order to gain the confidence of the Assembly, he invited Lemuel A. Wilmot and other Reformers to join his ministry. This coalition did not last long. When the governor, assuming the right to make appointments, made his son-in-law provincial treasurer, the reform members of the ministry resigned. Three years later, in 1848, the question of responsible government again came to a vote, and was carried by an overwhelming majority, Conservatives and Reformers alike voting in its favour. In the first responsible ministry sat the reform leader, Lemuel A. Wilmot.

In Nova Scotia a different situation existed. The lieutenant-governor, Sir Colin Campbell, utterly ignored the



JAMES W. JOHNSTON

wishes of the Assembly. The latter voted want of confidence in the Executive, yet Sir Colin refused to dismiss his unpopular ministers. Indignation was general throughout the province. Howe was still the champion of reform, but he now had a worthy foeman in the person of James W. Johnston, a man respected by the members of both parties. Sir Colin was at length recalled. His successor, Lord Falkland, adopted the plan of a coalition, and invited three Reformers, including

Howe, to join his Council. There was no reconciling such men as Howe and Johnston. They differed on every question, most of all upon matters of education, Howe advocating free common schools and one provincial university, Johnston favouring denominational schools and colleges state-aided. Finally, Falkland, giving up his plan of compromise, ranged himself upon the side of the Conservatives. A vacancy occurring in the Council, he



appointed a new member upon his own responsibility. Howe and his fellow-Reformers at once resigned. Lord Falkland was recalled, and his place taken by Sir John Harvey. In 1847 an election took place in which the Reformers were returned by a large majority. Johnston, the Conservative leader, resigned, and James Boyle Uniacke, a prominent Reformer, was asked to form a ministry. Howe, though deprived of this honour on account of his bitter opposition to the late governor, was given an important place in the new administration.

**167. Leaders of the period.**—Thus, by the year 1848, Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia enjoyed the advantage of responsible government. Three years later Prince Edward Island also secured a responsible Executive under the leadership of Mr. George Coles. The Constitutional Act had granted the boon of representative institutions, and now the second great principle of popular government had been adopted. The provinces were at last fully self-governing. When this change was complete, the people of the Maritime Provinces could proudly say with Howe, that “not a blow had been struck, nor a pane of glass broken” in the struggle. This contest brought into the field some notable men, whose names should be familiar to all Canadians.

There are few more striking figures in Canadian history than that of Louis Joseph Papineau. A strong personality and great eloquence enabled him to wield powerful influence over his fellow-countrymen. He was a born leader of men. Unfortunately, vanity and rashness made his leading unsafe. Papineau



SIR LOUIS H. LA FONTAINE

came back to Canada after responsible government had been won, and again took his seat in Parliament. But the day of rash statesmanship had passed, and the

returned exile found that the people were being guided by men of calm judgment and moderate views, men of whom La Fontaine was a fair type. Retiring at length to his picturesque home, hidden by the overhanging groves of the Ottawa, he passed in peace the closing years of a life which had long been tossed by the storm of politics and rebellion.

With the name of Papineau there comes to the mind that of William Lyon Mackenzie, the leader of the Upper Canada rebellion. The keynote of Mackenzie's career was intense hatred of all forms of injustice and oppression. He loved political freedom above all things. It was this love of freedom, coupled with a great rashness in speech and action, which hurried him into rebellion against what he considered to be tyranny. Like Papineau, he found, upon his return from exile, that political power had passed into the hands of men who were satisfied with gradual progress in reform. He again entered Parliament, and again published a newspaper, but in both these spheres his influence was gone.

When Mackenzie was swept off his feet by the tide of rebellion, the fortunes of the more moderate Reformers were



ROBERT BALDWIN

safely guided by Mr. Robert Baldwin, one of the sanest of Canadian statesmen. After the cause of reform had freed itself from the discredit which the rebellion had brought upon it, he was its recognized champion. His public career, however, was not long. Refusing to abandon his moderate political views, he was soon set aside by his party in favour of a more radical candidate for office. His name will not be forgotten by those who read aright the history of responsible government. Robert Baldwin's most helpful associate in more than one ministry was Louis H. La Fontaine. This able French-Canadian, like most of his fellow-countrymen, had been

strongly opposed to the union, on the ground that it did injustice to Lower Canada. When once the union was concluded, however, he wisely threw himself in with the movement and did his best to guard the interest of his province.

The triumph of responsible government in the Maritime Provinces will always be associated with the names of Joseph Howe and Lemuel A. Wilmot. An eloquent orator and a masterly writer, Howe was the life-long champion of the Nova Scotian people, whose cause was ever dear to him. His fidelity, moreover, to the Mother Country, was worthy of one descended from Loyalist ancestors. Wilmot, also, was the descendant of Loyalists. Eloquence, scarcely inferior to Howe's, and wide knowledge, made him a powerful speaker and a successful leader. His valuable services to New Brunswick raised him to the bench, and, finally, to the office of lieutenant-governor of his province.

### SUMMARY

The instructions of the British government to the governor were to rule "in accordance with the well-understood wishes of the people," and summon to his Council those who enjoyed "the general confidence and esteem of the province." Several years passed, however, before these instructions were fully observed in all the provinces. The struggle to enforce the principles of responsible government brought several able men into leadership: in Canada, Baldwin and La Fontaine, in the Maritime Provinces, Howe and Wilmot.

## CHAPTER XIX

### PROGRESS

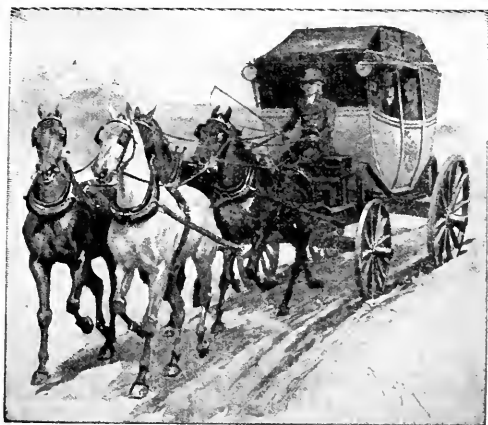
1812-1841

168. **Settlement.**—Between the War of 1812 and the union, the population of the British provinces had increased rapidly. A leap from half a million to a million and a half gave evidence of progress. Of the million and a half, Lower Canada claimed 630,000, Upper Canada 470,000, and the Maritime Provinces the remainder. The first great addition to the population was the coming of the United Empire Loyalists in the closing years of the eighteenth century. The next great addition was that of "the great immigration" which followed Britain's wars with France and the United States. Heavy taxes, scarcity of work, low wages, and high prices rendered the position of the working-men of the British Isles very serious. Many sought to improve their fortunes in the colonies. In this move they were helped by the British government with a free passage, farming tools and a year's supplies. Between the years 1826 and 1832 as many as thirty thousand a year settled in the colonies.

The most remarkable increase had been in Upper Canada, whose population was almost five times as great as at the close of the War of 1812-14. Several important cities and towns had their beginning in this period, among others Ottawa (then Bytown), London, Perth, Galt, and Peterborough. An important factor in settlement was the Canada Company, formed through the efforts of John Galt. The company controlled two and a half million acres, one million of which, lying between Lake Huron and Lake Ontario, was known as the "Huron Tract." The company did good work in exploring the land under its control, in opening up roads, and also in ad-

vertising the province throughout Great Britain. Unfortunately some lands, held for purposes of speculation, stood in the way of settlement. The growth of population in the Maritime Provinces was not so marked, probably because there was no company to advertise the country by the sea, no colonizer like Galt, that worthy successor of Talbot and Selkirk.

169. **Transportation.**—Improvement in methods of transportation kept pace with the growth of settlement. The bridle-paths, along which the pioneers rode on horseback to church or to visit their neighbours, and over which pack-horses carried grain and flour, were forgotten. In their place came log roads, the familiar "corduroy," wide enough for wagons and sleighs. Soon the older settlements enjoyed graded roads, with drains and bridges, improved finally by the use



A STAGE-COACH, SEVENTY YEARS AGO, BEFORE  
THE RAILWAYS WERE BUILT

of gravel. Fine roads invited stage-coaches, which were soon running between the larger towns. Upon the waterways, too, change was the order of the day. The canoe was, save for the fur trade, all but a memory. Early in the century the French-Canadian *bateaux*, capable of carrying heavy loads of merchandise, came into use. These were towed up rapids or dragged over portages by men or oxen. After the war the Durham boats, flat-bottomed barges, heavier than the *bateaux*, propelled by oars or sails, were commonly used on the lakes. Next appeared the steamboat. The great inland waterway presented by the St.

Lawrence and the Great Lakes was rendered all but useless for heavy traffic by frequent rapids. These obstacles to trade were conquered by the building of canals. The first of Canada's great canals was constructed at Lachine above Montreal, in the years 1821-24. Between 1824 and 1829 the famous Welland Canal, affording a passage between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, was built. This canal is a monument to the foresight and enterprise of William Hamilton Merritt. The construction, at a later date, of other canals on the St. Lawrence gave a waterway from Montreal to the head of Lake Huron to a vessel drawing nine feet of water. The Rideau Canal, opened in 1832, connected Bytown (Ottawa) and Kingston, and furnished a waterway free from the dangers of war in the event of trouble with other countries.

Good roads and open waterways produced immediate results of great importance. Passengers and mail were carried regularly between the larger settlements. Even to places off the main routes, mail found its way through the services of Indian runners or mounted postmen. Trade, too, began to increase, at least between neighbouring communities. As yet there was practically no commercial intercourse of province with province; none between New



THE STEAMER "BEAVER"

Brunswick and the Canadas; and only a little between Nova Scotia and the Canadas, by way of the St. Lawrence. The external trade of the provinces was mainly with Great Britain.

**170. Industries.**—Agriculture continued to be the occupation of the majority of the people.

To the settlers upon the shores of the Maritime Provinces fishing brought rich returns. The increase of trade with Great Britain gave an impulse to ship-building, and under these conditions the lumbering

industry grew rapidly. During the early part of the century Quebec was the great ship-building centre. Soon, however, the Maritime Provinces, especially Nova Scotia, under the stimulus of an ever increasing trade with the West Indies, took the lead in this industry. Quebec builders had the honour of turning out the *Royal William*, launched in 1831. The *Royal William* was the first Canadian steamer to cross the Atlantic, making the voyage from Pictou to London in twenty-five days. In 1840 the famous Cunard Steamship Company was organized, and a regular service was established from Liverpool to Halifax and Boston. About the same time the *Beaver* was launched upon the Thames, and sent out to British Columbia in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company, the pioneer steamer of the northern Pacific.

171. **Education.**—Though considerable progress had been made in education, the schools at the time of the union were very primitive, especially those of the rural districts. The teacher was, as a rule, ill-qualified, both in scholarship and in character. Nor was his salary a princely one. One writer describes him as “ill-fed, ill-clothed, ill-paid, or not paid at all.” He seldom received more than one hundred dollars a term, together with his board. It was the custom to have the teacher “board around,” favouring each home of the community in turn. The lot of the pupils was by no means a pleasant one—a log school-house with one wretched room, hot in summer and cold in winter, poor light, and backless seats. Added to these discomforts was the terror of frequent floggings, for the teacher was very often an old army man, who believed in strict discipline.

Interest in higher education was on the increase. Mention has already been made of the founding of King's College in 1788 at Windsor in Nova Scotia. Pictou Academy was founded in 1816. Five years later Dalhousie College was incorporated as a provincial institution at Halifax. In 1829 McGill University was founded at Montreal for English-speaking students. In Upper Canada two colleges were established in this period; namely, Upper Canada and Victoria.

172. **The churches.**—The Roman Catholic Church con-

tinued to be all powerful in Lower Canada. The priests ministered faithfully to the people. Every village had its church; every settler, however remote, was regularly visited by the travelling *curé*. Though four-fifths of her subjects were within the one province, the Roman Catholic church did not neglect the other provinces. The story of Bishop Macdonell, of the Glengarry Highlanders' settlement, is one of devoted service amid the hardships of pioneer life. Outside of Lower Canada the church of England was still the strongest religious body. The great missionary societies were liberal in supporting the colonial clergy, and in building churches where the colonists lacked the means to do so. The church buildings were commonly log huts, in which the congregation gathered from great distances. So wide was the territory to be covered and so few were the men, that the preacher became a travelling missionary. But there were many settlers who refused to ally themselves with the church of England. These were mainly of the Presbyterian and Methodist churches, two denominations which, in spite of divisions, made great progress before the union. Upon the political struggle for responsible government the churches exerted a strong influence. A large section of the church of England, the more conservative Presbyterians, and a small number of the Methodists, were found upon the side of the Family Compact, while behind the cause of reform stood a small but influential body of Anglicans, the strength of Presbyterianism and Methodism, and the smaller body of Baptists.

### SUMMARY

In the period between the War of 1812 and the union, the British provinces made marked progress. The population increased from half a million to a million and a half. Great changes in transportation were made by the building of wagon roads and the construction of canals. To agriculture was added another great industry; namely, lumbering. A change for the better was taking place in the schools, and higher education received more attention. All of the churches shared in the progress of the age.

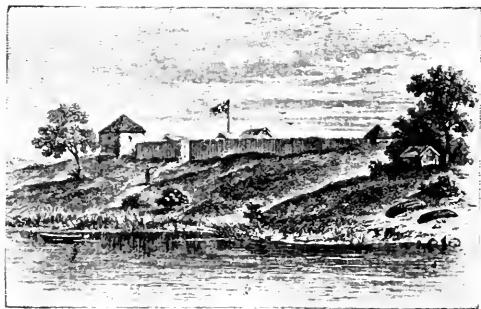


## CHAPTER XX

### THE WEST

1812-1841

**173. The Nor'-Westers hostile to the Selkirk settlement.**— And now to return to the struggling colony upon the banks of the Red River. The Nor'-Westers looked upon the newcomers as intruders and suspected that Lord Selkirk, being a shareholder in the Hudson's Bay Company, had planted this colony to interfere with the success of the Canadian traders. They were further annoyed by the aggressive policy of Selkirk, who had taken advantage of the discontent among the Nor'-Westers to induce some of them to enter the service of his own company. In this way the older company acquired the services of some of the most daring and progressive traders in the West.



FORT DOUGLAS ON THE RED RIVER

The early years brought trying experiences to the Selkirk settlers. They spent the winters at Pembina hunting the buffalo, returning each spring to the junction of the Red and Assiniboine rivers to sow their patches of grain. So great was the scarcity of food that in the second year the governor, Miles Macdonell, issued a proclamation to the effect that "no provisions, flesh, fish, grain, or vegetables, were to be taken out of the lands of the settlement for a year." Nothing more was needed

to bring the hostility of the Nor'-Westers to the point of violence. Grand Portage, found to be within United States territory, had been abandoned by the North-West Company. The new headquarters were located at the mouth of the Kaministiquia, where Fort William was built and named after a leading partner, William McGillivray. Here the partners gathered in great indignation at the news of Macdonell's proclamation. Plans were quickly laid for breaking up the Selkirk colony. To accomplish this object two of the partners were sent to Fort Gibraltar, a North-West Company's post situated half a mile from the settlement. By threats or bribes several of the settlers were induced to leave the colony. At this juncture a band of *Métis* gathered by one of the Nor'-Westers, made an attack upon the settlement. Four of the defenders were wounded, one of them fatally; and Miles Macdonell was seized and sent down to Montreal. The unfortunate settlers were continually fired upon, their houses broken open and plundered, and their cattle driven off. Finally, they were forced to withdraw for safety to the north end of Lake Winnipeg.

Great was the joy of the Nor'-Westers at Fort William. Yet almost immediately came the news that the colonists had returned, reinforced by another band of immigrants. With the new arrivals came Robert Semple, appointed to control all the factories of Rupert's Land. Meanwhile, Lord Selkirk had arrived in Canada. Hearing at Montreal of the misfortunes of his colonists, he was all eagerness to bear them aid. Undaunted by the refusal of the governor-general to grant him military support, he engaged the services of a hundred discharged soldiers and set out for the West.

While Lord Selkirk was still upon the way, stirring events were happening in the Red River valley. In the absence of Semple on a tour of inspection, Colin Robertson, commanding Fort Douglas, a post of the Hudson's Bay Company, seized and tore down Fort Gibraltar. The Nor'-Westers thereupon bestirred themselves to destroy the settlement. Half-breeds were summoned from west and north, and by

the middle of June, 1816, were gathered in a strong band at Portage la Prairie, under their popular leader, Cuthbert Grant. Upon the nineteenth, Governor Semple who had returned to the Red River country, was informed that a body of horsemen was approaching over the prairie. Taking a small force, the governor marched out to inquire the purpose of the intruders. At a spot about two miles from Winnipeg, now marked by the Seven Oaks monument, the two parties met. Semple was disputing with a Nor'-Wester when suddenly two shots rang out, and the governor and his lieutenant fell. In a few minutes the skirmish was over, and twenty of Semple's followers lay dead or mortally wounded. By this disaster the settlers were again forced to leave their homes, and to seek refuge at the head of Lake Winnipeg. On their way north they were intercepted by a party of Nor'-Westers, and five of their number were arrested and carried off to Fort William.

The news of Seven Oaks was the signal for fresh rejoicing at Fort William. This post, the centre of the company's trade, was the meeting place of the Montreal merchants and the "wintering partners." To the weary *voyageurs* and traders it was a very paradise. Here, when the season's labours and dangers were past, they gathered for rest and entertainment. Within the main building the central dining-hall, capable of accommodating two hundred guests, was the scene of frequent banquets. Here men of every nationality, of every creed, met. Traders and soldiers,



THE SEVEN OAKS MONUMENT

mingling with half-breeds and Indians, were encamped in the open. Dancing, drinking, and singing, they made day and night hideous with their revelry. The news of the second expulsion of the Red River colonists set festivities at Fort William in full swing.

Upon such a scene Lord Selkirk and his force suddenly burst. The indignant nobleman demanded the immediate restoration of the settlers who had been seized upon the Red River. Next, acting in the capacity of a magistrate, he ordered the arrest of William McGillivray and several of his fellow-partners. These were sent back to York, Upper Canada, and thence to Montreal. Selkirk, deeming it too late in the season to complete his journey, spent the winter comfortably in the Nor'-Westers' quarters. In the spring he pushed on to the Red River, where he did all in his power to improve the condition of his colony. He restored the ejected colonists to their farms, settled his soldiers about Fort Douglas, and made a treaty with the Indians.

When the news of the tragic death of Semple and his men reached England, the imperial government at once ordered the governor-general of Canada to restore order in the West. Both parties to the quarrel were ordered to give up all posts and property seized. Later several Nor'-Westers were brought to trial in connection with the murder of Semple and his followers. The verdict of "not guilty," which caused a great surprise in Britain, was due to the strong influence of the North-West Company in Canada. Lord Selkirk, on the other hand, tried on several charges of violence, was convicted and heavily fined. Shattered in health and disappointed in spirit, the unfortunate colonizer withdrew to the south of France, where he died in 1820. Though its cause was to be regretted, Selkirk's withdrawal was beneficial to the West, for it removed the last obstacle in the way of a union of the fur companies. In the following year the Hudson's Bay Company and the North-West Company became one, under the name of the former. The long-standing rivalry of the fur traders, fatal to order and injurious to the morals of the Indians, was at an end.

**174. Sir George Simpson's administration.**—After the union the management of the company's affairs rested with an official known as the governor of Rupert's Land, assisted by a council of chief factors and traders. A strong man was needed for the governorship, and such an one was found in the person of a young Scotsman named George Simpson, a clerk in a London counting-house. For forty years Simpson guided the fortunes of the company. Small of stature, he yet had "the self-possession of an emperor." His energy was unfailing. Every year he made the journey from Montreal to the distant West by the fur traders' route, inspecting the most remote posts, and on several occasions crossing the Rocky Mountains. To the enterprise of the Hudson's Bay Company, in no small measure, Great Britain owes her control of the Pacific coast. From the north Russia, from the south the United States, were pressing rival claims which threatened to shut out Great Britain altogether from the sea. Under Simpson's aggressive administration the country between the Rockies and the Pacific was occupied. Upon the coast there were six permanent trading-posts, and in the interior sixteen. These trading interests were protected on the side of the ocean by a fleet of six armed vessels. Fort Vancouver on the Columbia River became the centre of the company's coast trade.



SIR GEORGE SIMPSON

**175. Progress of the Selkirk settlement.**—Meanwhile, the Selkirk settlement was winning its way to prosperity. The population, composed at the outset of two hundred Scottish and Irish settlers, one hundred German soldiers, and a number of French traders and half-breeds, was steadily increasing. The hardships of pioneer life in eastern Canada were here repeated. Spade and hoe, sickle and cradle, flail

and quern—made of two flat stones between which the grain was crushed—all told of the day of small things. The land was just beginning to yield a scanty living to the persevering farmers, when a series of disasters swept away the fruits of patient labour. For three years in succession clouds of grasshoppers descended upon the land, making of the fields a “desolate wilderness.” A few years later the river overflowed its banks and swept over the fields, driving back the settlers of the neighbouring heights, and carrying off houses and barns. The courage of the settlers, however, was equal to all these misfortunes, and brought them through to better days.

For many years the government of the colony was in the hands of the local governor of the Hudson’s Bay Company. Growth made a change necessary. The Council of Assiniboia, composed of fourteen members and having Sir George Simpson for president, was appointed by the company. This arrangement was not altogether satisfactory. The people complained that the councillors were paid servants of the company, and did not, therefore, represent the popular will. Discontent was a sign of progress, a sign that the settlement was growing beyond the control of a fur company. The historic centre of the colony was Fort Garry. A weather-beaten gateway still stands to mark the scene of the pioneer settlement of the West.

**176. The mystery of the north-west passage solved.**—The north-west passage by water was still a mystery; yet repeated failures to solve it had in no way dampened the ardour of Arctic explorers. While voyages were made by sea, expeditions continued to be sent through northern Canada to explore the Arctic coast-line. The names of Franklin, Back, Simpson, Dease, and Rae form the honour roll of these northern explorers. When, finally, Sir John Franklin sailed with the *Erebus* and *Terror* into the frozen north, his friends little thought that he was never to return. No less than fifteen search parties were sent out within six years to seek the lost seaman. At last, twelve years after Franklin’s departure from England, searchers came upon the skeletons and relics which told of the fate of the ill-starred

crews. As a result of all these expeditions by sea and land, it was known there was a passage by water from the Atlantic to the Pacific, but that it was blocked with ice. The gain to Great Britain from the search for the north-west passage was a definite knowledge of the northern coast of the American continent.

### SUMMARY

The Selkirk settlers were looked upon as intruders by the Nor'-Westers, who suspected that Lord Selkirk had founded the settlement to interfere with the Canadian fur traders. By bribes and threats the latter tried to break up the colony. The quarrel between the companies reached a climax in the tragedy of Seven Oaks. After the death of Lord Selkirk in 1820, the ill-will between the rival companies grew less, and in 1821 a union took place under the title of the Hudson's Bay Company. Under the administration of Sir George Simpson, the company's trade was extended to and along the Pacific coast. In the Selkirk settlement the pioneer experiences of Upper Canada were repeated.

## CHAPTER XXI

### BETWEEN UNION AND CONFEDERATION

1841-64

**177. The fruits of responsible government.**—The provinces were now enjoying the fruits of responsible government, —control through the Executive of all appointments, of crown lands, and the expenditure of money. Having once recognized the right of the provinces to self-government, Great Britain made even further concessions. The most important of these was the surrender of tariff control. Hitherto Great Britain had held a monopoly of colonial trade. According to the Navigation Laws, none but British-built ships could carry goods to and from the colonies. Colonial tariffs were fixed by the home government, although the proceeds were spent upon the colonies. For some years a movement had been on foot in Great Britain to establish free trade, and in 1846 the British markets were thrown open to the world. At the same time the provinces were given the power to repeal any tariff Acts which had been passed by the imperial government. Three years later the Navigation Laws were repealed, and the provinces left free to control their own trade. In the same year Great Britain turned over to the provinces the entire control of the postal service. It was this liberal treatment which made it possible for George Brown, speaking a year later, to say of Great Britain, "Frankly and generously she has, one by one, surrendered all the rights which were once held necessary to the condition of a colony —the patronage of the crown, the right over the public domain, the civil list, the customs, the post-office, have all been relinquished."

**178. The Rebellion Losses Bill, 1849.**—No sooner was the principle of responsible government adopted than it was seriously threatened in the Canadian Legislature. The



Baldwin-La Fontaine government introduced a measure which proposed to vote a sum of money to compensate the loyal subjects of Lower Canada for their losses during the rebellion. This proposal, when formerly made, had raised a storm of opposition. "No pay to rebels," was the cry of the opposition. Yet the measure was passed by the Legislature and submitted to Lord Elgin for his signature. Every effort was made to induce the governor to exercise his power of veto. It was a critical moment for responsible government. To veto a bill which had met with the approval of a majority of the Legislature would be to ignore responsibility in government. Fortunately Lord Elgin was firm, and assented to the bill. When the news spread that the Re-



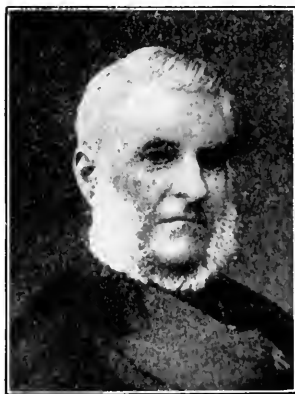
LORD ELGIN

billion Losses Bill had been signed by the governor, Montreal became the scene of a disgraceful riot. As Lord Elgin drove away from the Parliament Buildings, a mob followed his carriage, pelting it with stones and rotten eggs. The rioters next turned their attention to the buildings, which they quickly cleared and set on fire. In a few hours the House, its library, and the state records were in ashes.

Disgraced by the destructive act of her disorderly citizens, Montreal forfeited the right to be the seat of government. For several years Parliament was a homeless wanderer, meeting alternately in Toronto and Quebec, for a term of four years in each place. Finally, the queen was asked to choose a permanent place of meeting, and in 1858 her choice was made public. Bytown, a village on the Ottawa River, became the capital. The name of Bytown gave place to that of Ottawa, by which the present capital of Canada is so well known to the world. The queen's choice was a wise one. The selection of any one of the older cities would have aroused

the jealousy of the others. Moreover, standing back from the frontier, Ottawa was removed from the dangers to which the border towns were exposed in times of war.

**179. The Municipal Corporation Act.**—Up to the year 1849 very little progress had been made in local self-government in Canada. The agitation for self-government in local affairs had been carried on by the Reformers side by side with the struggle for responsible government, but little had been accomplished, owing to the determined opposition of the governing classes. Some few districts, villages, towns and cities had been granted limited powers, but these were of little importance. Lord Durham had recommended in his report, the establishment of a good system of municipal institutions, and the Draper government of 1841 had endeavoured to secure popular support by passing a Local Government Act. But this Act did little more than give a partially elective government to the districts of Upper Canada. “It remained for Robert Baldwin in one comprehensive statute to establish the entire system of local government in Upper Canada upon the democratic basis of popular election.” The Municipal Corporation Act of 1849



SIR FRANCIS HINCKS

established municipal institutions in Canada on the basis that they exist to-day. This control over local affairs has proved of great benefit in training the people in the art of government.

**180. Important legislation.**—Both Baldwin and La Fontaine retired from the government in 1851, and were succeeded by Francis Hincks and Auguste Morin. Under the administration of these two energetic leaders, many important measures were introduced, particularly in regard to the construction of railways.

Reforms were also made in the currency, although the

decimal system was not introduced into Canada until 1858. About the same time also the representation of each of the provinces in the Legislature was increased from forty-two to sixty-five. Dissatisfaction, however, among the extreme members of the Reform party, owing to the slowness of the government in dealing with a number of controversial questions, caused the fall of the administration. On the resignation of Hincks, Lord Elgin called upon Sir Allan MacNab, the leader of the Conservative party, to form a ministry. With the assistance of Morin, who had a strong following among the French-speaking members, Sir Allan succeeded in forming a government which had the confidence of the Assembly. The more moderate Reformers, alarmed at the advanced views of a section among the Upper Canadian members, also strongly supported the new ministry. The government, one of the leading members of which was John A. Macdonald, as Attorney-general for Upper Canada, at once proceeded to deal with many questions which had remained unsettled and which were causing trouble in the country.

The first year of the new administration, 1854, was marked by events of great importance. Standing in the way of progress were two obstacles: the Clergy Reserves and the Seigniorial Tenure. The discontent arising from these two questions had been growing so steadily that action could be no longer delayed. Upon the same day bills were passed dealing with both matters. The Clergy Reserves were secularized, and all connection between church and state was thereby brought to an end. The change was made with great fairness, and in a way that seemed to satisfy all parties concerned. The rectories which had been built and endowed were left untouched, and the remainder of the funds arising from the Reserves was divided among the municipalities, to be used in the interests of education, or for purposes of local improvements. In Lower Canada, the Seigniorial Tenure, which had always been an obstacle to the development of an independent farming class, was abolished. The seigniors were, of course, recompensed for the surrender of their

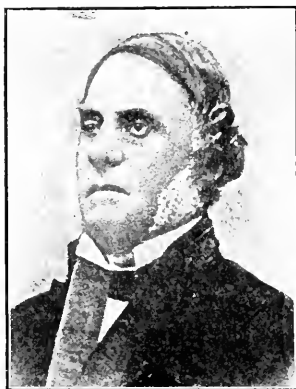
rights, the burden of expense falling almost entirely upon the government.

In the same year in which the Clergy Reserves were secularized and the Seigniorial Tenure was abolished, free trade was established between the British provinces and the United States. The Reciprocity Treaty, arranged chiefly through the efforts of Lord Elgin, provided for an exchange between the two countries of the products of the sea, the field, the forest, and the mine. The Americans were admitted to Canadian fisheries, and also to the navigation of Canadian rivers and canals, while the Canadians were permitted to fish in American waters, and Lake Michigan was opened to their vessels. The new arrangement was beneficial to both countries, the Canadian farmers, miners, and lumbermen finding it especially profitable. The treaty was to remain in force for ten years, at the end of which time either country could bring it to a close by giving a year's notice.

In 1854, also, an Act was passed by the Imperial Parliament making the Legislative Council of Canada elective, instead of appointed, as provided by the Act of Union. It was not until 1856, however, that the Act was accepted by the Canadian Parliament. As fast as vacancies occurred by death or retirement, they were filled by elected representatives, who held office for eight years.

**181. The province of British Columbia formed.**—During this period the foundations of another colony were laid in the far West. For a time the outlook in the western land was darkened by the danger of war over a boundary dispute. For years the forty-ninth parallel had been regarded as the boundary line across the western half of the continent. The question, however, was still an open one. Gradually the people of the United States began to claim all the Pacific coast-line up to the southern boundary of Alaska, which then belonged to Russia. "Fifty-four Forty or Fight," was the cry of the claimants. Fortunately it proved to be neither "fifty-four forty" nor "fight." By the Oregon Treaty, 1846, the forty-ninth parallel became the permanent boundary line.

In the trading-posts founded by the Hudson's Bay Company west of the Rockies, the foundations of the Pacific province were laid. As immigration was setting in to the western United States, the population north of the boundary line naturally began to increase. The Hudson's Bay Company, upon the strength of what it had done on the mainland, asked the British government for a grant of Vancouver Island. Lord Elgin, having heard that the company's rule in the West had tended to the maintenance of order, reported in favour of the grant. In 1849 the island was handed over to the company for ten years, on the condition that colonization would be encouraged. It was soon found, however, that the company had no intention of promoting settlement, which interfered with the fur trade. Only the poorest land was offered for sale, and that at a very high price. The company's monopoly of the mines kept out miners who would otherwise have entered the country. Even the necessities of life could be bought only at the company's stores, where high prices were charged. This state



SIR JAMES DOUGLAS

of affairs was not satisfactory, and, accordingly, in 1859 Vancouver became a crown colony, with Victoria as its capital. Mr. James Douglas, later Sir James, who had been chief factor of the Hudson's Bay Company and governor of the island, continued in office under the crown.

The years 1856 and 1857 witnessed a great change upon the mainland. The discovery of gold in the sands of the Fraser and Thompson rivers was the signal for an inrush of fortune hunters. To maintain order in a district made lawless by the presence of so many miners, a separate government was formed, with headquarters at the busy mining town of New Westminster. Thus was the province of British Columbia formed. It was soon found,

however, that it was both inconvenient and expensive to maintain the two colonies as separate governments. The total population was only about fifteen thousand. It was determined, therefore, in 1866, to unite the two colonies under the name of British Columbia. Victoria, where handsome public buildings had already been erected, was chosen as the capital.

### SUMMARY

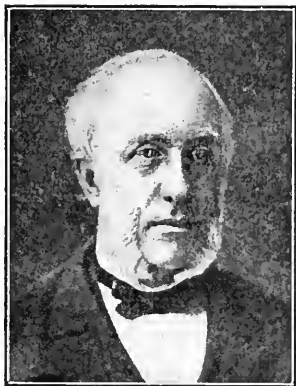
Responsible government once established, other concessions from the British government soon followed control of the tariff and the postal service. The signing of the Rebellion Losses Bill marked the final triumph of responsible government. Two progressive steps were taken in this period, in the secularization of the Clergy Reserves and in the abolition of the Seigniorial Tenure. In the trading-posts of the Pacific coast the foundation of a new province had been laid. The Hudson's Bay Company was placed in control of Vancouver Island. The failure of the company to encourage colonization and the influx of miners on the mainland led to the organization of the colony of British Columbia.

## CHAPTER XXII

### CONFEDERATION

#### THE CONFEDERATION MOVEMENT, 1864-67

**182. Union sentiment in Canada.**—The idea of a federal union—one in which there would be a central government, while each province retained a local Parliament—was by no means a new one. As far back as the opening of the century it had been suggested by more than one far-seeing Loyalist. Lord Durham recommended union, and from his day on, the word was continually upon the lips of statesmen both in the Maritime Provinces and in Canada. Friction between the upper and lower sections of Canada was yearly increasing. Their representation in the union Parliament was, as we have seen, equal. The population of Upper Canada had increased very rapidly, so that within fifteen years after the union it exceeded that of Lower Canada by two hundred and fifty thousand. Upper Canada began to clamour for a change. Representation by population, familiarly called “Rep. by Pop.,” became the battle-cry of the Reformers. George Brown steadily advocated this claim, both from his seat in Parliament and through the columns of the *Globe*. The people of Lower Canada, however, pointed out that at the time of the union, and for some years afterwards, their population had been much greater than that of Upper Canada, and the representation had been the same. They held that they were



GEORGE BROWN

not responsible for the change of conditions, and steadily opposed any attempt to change the representation. Thus the friction between the two sections of the country was becoming stronger year by year.

In Parliament the parties were so evenly balanced that deadlock became a common experience. Between 1861 and 1864 four or five ministries held office. John A. Macdonald in describing the situation said, "We had election after election, we had ministry after ministry, with the same result. Parties were so equally balanced that the vote of one member might decide the fate of the administration." Under these circumstances the idea of a federal union of



SIR CHARLES TUPPER

the Canadas naturally suggested itself to the minds of statesmen. Out of the idea of a federal union of two provinces gradually grew the greater one, of a union of all the provinces. But the Maritime Provinces, prosperous and contented with their newly acquired privilege of responsible government, were not yet ready to consider such a gigantic scheme. Not for several years was confederation to be realized; yet in the interval the idea of union was never lost sight of by clear-sighted statesmen. In

every province there were men who fostered the cause of union—men of all parties and creeds. In Canada Brown and Macdonald, in the Maritime Provinces Tilley and Tupper, were to join hands from opposite parties to realize their common aim of uniting the provinces.

**183. Union sentiment in the Maritime Provinces.**—Events soon forced the question of union upon the attention of the Maritime Provinces. In 1861 war broke out between the Northern and Southern States over the question of slavery. Great Britain and her colonies remained neutral. One incident, however, threatened to drag Great Britain into the



war. A British mail steamship, the *Trent*, conveying two Southern commissioners to Europe, was boarded by the captain of a United States ship-of-war, and the Southerners were arrested. Great Britain demanded the surrender of the captives, threatening war in case her demand was not granted. Fortunately, the United States government gave up the commissioners, and more serious trouble was averted. The mere possibility of war with the United States, however, impressed upon the Maritime Provinces the advantage of union. Yet the impulse to unite fell short of the larger scheme of a federation of all the provinces, and tended towards the union of the Maritime Provinces only. The idea of a maritime union took practical form in 1864, when delegates from New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island met at Charlottetown. The fact that the delegations included both Reformers and Conservatives, proved that the movement was not one of party.

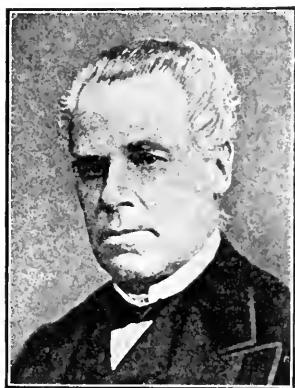


SIR LEONARD TILLEY

Meanwhile, the cause of union was gaining ground in Canada. It was becoming impossible for any government to maintain a majority. At last, in 1864, when the Conservative ministry was defeated, Mr. George Brown, setting aside party feeling, proposed that a joint ministry be formed with a view to pressing the plan of union. The proposal was acted upon, and the coalition ministry pledged itself to bring before Parliament a measure to secure the federal union of Upper and Lower Canada, and to provide for the admission of the other provinces. When the Canadian statesmen heard of the meeting which was being held at Charlottetown, they asked permission to take part in it. The request was granted, and eight representatives, including John A. Macdonald, George Brown, and Georges É.

Cartier, were sent to Charlottetown. The grander scheme of confederation overshadowed that of local union, and it was decided to hold a second conference at Quebec later in the season.

**184. The Fathers of Confederation.**—In the following month the Quebec conference was held. Thirty-three delegates, representing Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, gathered in the Parliament Buildings of the historic capital of New France. Of French, English, Scotch, and Irish descent were these "Fathers of Confederation," a fitting body to deal with the question of a union of all the British North American prov-



SIR GEORGES É. CARTIER

inces. Nor could a more suitable chairman have been chosen than Étienne Paschal Taché, a veteran of the War of 1812, who expressed the loyalty of his fellow-countrymen when he said that "the last gun that would be fired for British supremacy in America would be fired by a French-Canadian." The most prominent member of the gathering was undoubtedly John A. Macdonald, who had already played an important part in Canadian affairs and was to share in still greater events. His keen insight into character and his wide knowledge of the working of British institutions fitted him for leadership. From the moment the confederation movement began, he never ceased to be its central figure. Georges Étienne Cartier had long been associated in public life with Macdonald. He had, it is true, taken some part in the Lower Canadian rebellion of 1837, but later, repenting of his youthful folly, he had rendered faithful service to his province under the union. It was mainly Cartier's wise and tactful leading that brought Lower Canada into confederation, and his watchful care that protected the interests of

that province. Upper Canada had no more faithful representative than George Brown. Mr. Brown was a Liberal of a pronounced type, but it will always be remembered to his honour that he forgot party in his desire to bring about union. The delegation from Canada included several other well known men—Alexander T. Galt, a master of finance, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, poet, historian, and orator, William McDougall, a distinguished son of a Loyalist, and Oliver Mowat, later lieutenant-governor of Ontario.

Among the Nova Scotian representatives were Charles Tupper and Adams G. Archibald. Dr. Tupper's force and readiness in debate had early brought him into prominence as leader of the Conservative party, in which position he frequently pitted his strength against Howe, whose lifelong opponent he was. New Brunswick's delegation was headed by Samuel Leonard Tilley, a man who stood high in the public life of his province, and whose ability later won him the position of finance minister of the Dominion. Prince Edward Island was represented by Colonel Gray and George Coles, the latter the father of responsible government in his province. Newfoundland sent Frederick Carter as delegate. No greater achievement has marked the progress of our country than the uniting of the British North American provinces; there are no names more worthy of a high place in the memory of Canadians than those of the "Fathers of Confederation."



SIR JOHN A. MACDONALD

The conference unanimously resolved, 'That the best interests and present and future prosperity of British North America will be promoted by a federal union under the crown of Great Britain, provided such union can be effected on principles just to the several provinces.' The debate lasted eighteen days, and its results were summed up in

seventy-two resolutions. The conference had declared in favour of confederation; it remained to be seen how the plan would be regarded by the British government and by each of the provinces. Its reception was varied. By the British government it was gladly welcomed, as also by Upper and Lower Canada. Newfoundland rejected the proposal entirely, and, adhering to this decision, still stands alone. New Brunswick at an early election declared against confederation, but a year later reconsidered the matter, and gave a decided majority in its favour. Nova Scotia, influenced by the action of New Brunswick, wavered at first, but finally the Legislature passed a resolution in favour of union. The fact that the question was not put to the vote of the people led to trouble later. Prince Edward Island decided to remain independent. Delegates from the four provinces favourable to confederation were sent to London to secure an Act of union from the imperial government. From the opposition faction in Nova Scotia went Joseph Howe to oppose the movement. The efforts of Howe were unavailing; the Act was framed in spite of his protest.

**185. The cause of union strengthened.**—Meanwhile, events were happening which had an important bearing upon the cause of confederation. What argument failed to do in overcoming opposition to the movement, the action of a foreign power did most effectually. The United States government suddenly, in 1865, gave notice that the Reciprocity Treaty would terminate in a year, thinking thereby to force the British provinces into annexation in order to save their trade. Congress even offered favourable terms of annexation, proposing to receive the provinces as so many states of the union. This action had the sole effect of binding the provinces more closely together, and of making them depend more upon one another and upon Great Britain for their trade.

The confederation movement was still further strengthened by the illegal action of the Fenian Brotherhood, an organization of discontented Irishmen which undertook to conquer Canada as a step towards the freeing of Ireland. It was little to the credit of the American government that these

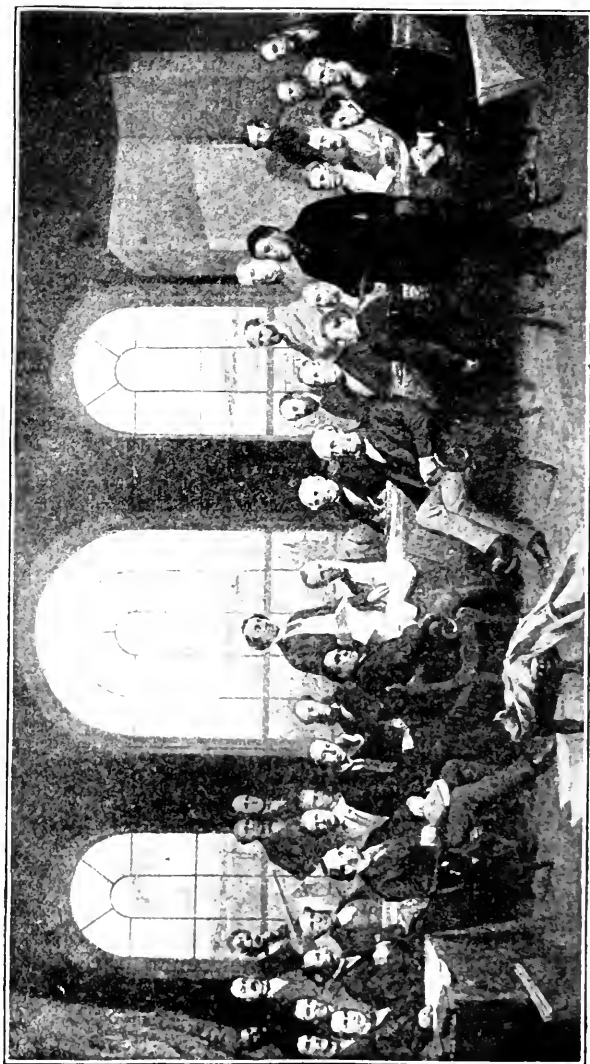
men were allowed to arm and drill their forces within the borders of the United States. The most determined of the Fenian raids was that made in 1866 under one Colonel O'Neil upon the Niagara peninsula. Crossing from Buffalo, the invaders advanced to destroy the Welland Canal. At Ridgeway they met and drove back a detachment of Canadian militia which had hurriedly been despatched to meet them. Nine of the Canadians were killed in the conflict and thirty-five wounded. Hearing of the approach of a large force of militia and regulars, with cavalry and artillery, the Fenians quickly retreated across the river. In 1870 a raid was made into Quebec, but this was repulsed with ease; in the next year a similar raid into Manitoba ended in the arrest of O'Neil by the United States government.

### SUMMARY

The population of Upper Canada had grown to be much larger than that of Lower Canada, yet the representation of the two provinces remained equal. As a remedy for this condition statesmen began to discuss a federal union of the two provinces. In the Maritime Provinces the possibility of war with the United States suggested the idea of union. In 1864 a meeting of delegates from New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, was held at Charlottetown. Representatives from Canada joined the conference. At a later conference held at Quebec it was unanimously resolved that the best interests of British North America would be promoted by a federal union of the provinces.

### THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT, 1867

186. **The Act passed, 1867.**—Meanwhile, the labours of the provincial delegates, who were meeting in the Westminster Hotel at London, were drawing to a close. The Quebec resolutions, modified so as to grant the Maritime Provinces more favourable terms, were submitted to the Imperial Parliament; and in March, 1867, the British North America Act, familiarly called the "B. N. A. Act," was passed. "The provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick," the Act reads, "shall form and be one Dominion under the name of Canada. . . . The parts of the pro-



THE FATHERS OF CONFEDERATION.

vince of Canada, which formerly constituted respectively the provinces of Upper Canada and Lower Canada, shall form two separate provinces." The names of Upper Canada and Lower Canada gave place to those of Ontario and Quebec.

187. **The terms of the Act.**—Under the constitution established by the British North America Act, the sovereign was to be represented in the new Dominion by a governor-general. The appointment of this official rested with the sovereign. To advise the governor-general there was a Cabinet or Executive Council of thirteen members, responsible to the people's representatives in Parliament.

The Dominion Legislature included two bodies,—the Senate and the House of Commons. The senators were not elected, but appointed for life by the governor-general. There was an equal representation of the three great divisions of the Dominion,—Ontario, Quebec, and the Maritime Provinces.

The House of Commons was to be elected by the people for a term of five years. The provinces were represented according to population. The representation of Quebec was to remain fixed at sixty-five members. The representation of each other province was to bear the same relation to sixty-five as its population bore to that of Quebec.

188. **A federal union defined.**—The union brought about by the British North America Act was *federal*, as distinct from *legislative*. Under the Union Act each province had given up its local Parliament, and elected representatives to a joint Legislature. Under confederation, on the other hand, each province retained its local government, while sending representatives to the Dominion Legislature. The provincial Legislatures controlled all matters of purely local interest; the central government attended to questions which affected the Dominion as a whole. The British North America Act came into force on the first day of July, 1867. This birthday of the Dominion was duly celebrated throughout the four provinces, and the first of July has, since that time, been observed as the national birthday of Canada.





## SUMMARY

The British North America Act united Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick in one Dominion under the name of Canada. The old province of Canada was again divided, being called Ontario and Quebec. Provision was made for a federal government, composed of governor-general, Cabinet and Legislature, to manage the affairs of the Dominion as a whole. Each province of the Dominion was to retain its own government to deal with matters of local interest.

## THE EXPANSION OF CONFEDERATION, 1867-1873

189. **Rupert's Land and the North-West transferred to Canada.**—Only four provinces—Ontario, Quebec, Nova



WINNIPEG IN 1869

Scotia, and New Brunswick—took part in the celebration of the first of July, 1867. There was every prospect, however, that the bounds of the Dominion would soon be extended both in the east and in the west. The British North America Act, in fact, made provision for the admission at any time of Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, British Columbia, Rupert's Land, and the North-West Territories.

During the first session of the Dominion Parliament, upon the motion of the Hon. William McDougall, the British government was asked to hand over to Canada Rupert's

Land and the North-West. It was asserted that the rule of the Hudson's Bay Company, an organization interested in trade alone, did not tend to the general development of the country. A strong argument in support of Canada's request was the fact that the extension of the Dominion westwards would be a safeguard against any aggression of the United States in that direction. Under wise pressure from the British government, the Hudson's Bay Company finally surrendered to Canada its control of Rupert's Land and its monopoly of trade. The company, in return, received the sum of £300,000, one-twentieth of all land lying south of the north branch of the Saskatchewan River and west of Lake Winnipeg, thereafter surveyed for settlement, and also retained its posts and trading privileges. Thus did this great company, after two centuries of uninterrupted authority, become a private commercial concern, although still the greatest in the West. Whatever may be said in criticism of the Hudson's Bay Company, and of the lesser organizations which it had absorbed, one fact should be remembered; namely, that it was by the energy and daring of their chief factors and explorers that the West was held for Great Britain.

**190. The Red River rebellion, 1870.**—To-day about one and a half millions of people dwell between Lake Superior and the Rocky Mountains, a scanty population for a land so vast. Yet what a change since confederation! Then the only occupants of the broad prairies were roving bands of Indians, a few scattered traders, and twelve thousand settlers in the valley of the Red River. Ten thousand of these were half-breeds, some of Scottish descent, speaking English, others French both in origin and speech. Into this community, without warning, flocked Canadian surveyors to lay out roads and townships. The country had been handed over to Canada, and the interests of the natives were to be sacrificed. Such was the thought of the half-breed element. The presence in the colony of several Fenians and annexationists added to the general discontent. The storm centre was the French half-breed party, the *Métis*, led by Louis Riel. Riel was the son of a white father and a

half-breed mother, and had been educated in Montreal. Fluency of speech and magnetism of manner gave him ready control over his compatriots; unchecked ambition and extraordinary vanity blinded him to the folly of resisting the authority of the Dominion. There was no one in the colony to restrain his madness. But for the courage and tact of Donald A. Smith, acting as the agent of the Dominion government, affairs might have taken a worse turn than they did. Archbishop Taché, than whom none exerted greater influence over the *Métis*, was absent in Rome, and although he hastened home as quickly as possible, he did not reach Fort Garry until the frenzy of rebellion had spent itself in murder.

The news that the Hon. William McDougall was on his way to the Red River to assume the governorship was the signal for the rising. Riel and

his followers seized Fort Garry, and set up the so-called "Provisional Government." McDougall was stopped at the boundary line and forbidden to enter the country. Fortunately the would-be governor obeyed, and there was every prospect of a bloodless settlement of the difficulty when a sudden fit of madness on Riel's part precipitated a tragedy. Among some prisoners whom the latter had thrust into Fort Garry, as enemies of the "Provisional



WILLIAM MCDUGALL

Government," was a young Ontario immigrant named Thomas Scott. This unfortunate youth, Riel picked out to be his instrument in terrorizing his opponents. Court-martialed and condemned upon the charge of treason, Scott was led out before the walls of Fort Garry and shot. The news of this tragedy raised a storm of indignation in Eastern Canada. A force of seven hundred regulars and volunteers was chosen to proceed at once to the scene of the

rebellion. A toilsome and dangerous journey by way of Lake Superior and the fur traders' route was skilfully conducted by Colonel Garnet Wolseley. At the approach of the troops, all military ardour and pride of office died down within Riel's breast. He promptly fled from the scene of his transient glory to find a refuge in the United States.



SIR ADAMS ARCHIBALD

share in its making. The little settlement about Fort Garry was soon transformed into the populous city of Winnipeg, a monument to the foresight of that patriotic colonizer, Lord Selkirk. Manitoba drew her first governor from the far east, in the person of a distinguished Nova Scotian, Adams Archibald.

**192. British Columbia enters confederation, 1871.**—A year later the westward expansion of confederation was continued. With the admission of British Columbia the Dominion had run its course from ocean to ocean. The Pacific province, larger than the four original members of confederation, has been described as a "sea of mountains," but this description conveys no idea of the wealth of the country. Forests of the grandest timber, untold mineral wealth, rich though scanty farm land, all these resources have already attracted many immigrants, and will attract more in the

**191. The province of Manitoba formed, 1870.**—Out of the strife of rebellion arose a new province. Even while Wolseley's force was on its way to Fort Garry, the Manitoba Act was passed by the Canadian Parliament. By this Act Manitoba was admitted into confederation as a full-fledged province. The claims of the half-breeds were fully met, one million four hundred thousand acres of land being set apart for that purpose. Many of Wolseley's men remained in the new province to

future. The entry of British Columbia into confederation was made subject to a very important condition; namely, that a transcontinental railroad should be begun within two years and completed within ten years from the date of union. As it turned out, fifteen years were to elapse before this gigantic undertaking was carried through, but with the driving of the last spike British Columbia was bound by the strongest bond to the Dominion.

**193. Prince Edward Island enters confederation, 1873.—**In 1873 Prince Edward Island, repenting of its rejection of the scheme of confederation, entered the Dominion. Throughout the whole course of the island's history the ownership of land had never ceased to be a vexed question. To settle the matter, the Dominion government voted eight hundred thousand dollars to buy out the rights of the absentee proprietors. The tenants were now in a position to purchase on reasonable terms the lands which they occupied.

The cause of union had triumphed. In all the provinces the obstacles had been great, but in all the faith of patriotic statesmen had been greater. The young Dominion stretched across a continent looking out to east and west upon an ocean. Newfoundland alone stood aloof.

### SUMMARY

Provision was made in the British North America Act for the admission of other provinces to the Dominion. The first step towards expansion was the purchase of Rupert's Land and the North-West from the Hudson's Bay Company. A rising of the half-breeds under Louis Riel proved but a momentary check. In 1870 the province of Manitoba was formed and admitted to confederation. A year later, British Columbia became part of the Dominion, and two years later still Prince Edward Island joined. The Dominion now stretched from ocean to ocean. Newfoundland alone held aloof.

## CHAPTER XXIII

### PROGRESS

1841-1867

194. **Increase of population.**—Of the increasing prosperity of the British provinces between the union and confederation there is no more striking evidence than the growth of the population. The population had more than doubled; roughly speaking, it had increased from one and a half to nearly three and a half millions. Villages had grown into towns, and towns into cities. Hamilton, Ottawa, London and Kingston had taken their place among the cities, while Halifax, St. John, Montreal, Toronto, and Quebec had, as early as the year 1861, attained populations ranging from twenty-five to fifty thousand. Not the old settlements alone benefited by the immigration of this period; in the “back country” north and west, behind Ottawa, Kingston, Peterborough, and the Huron tract, new counties were being opened up.

195. **Industrial progress.**—Of the adult male population of the provinces six years before confederation, over three hundred thousand were farmers and two hundred thousand labourers, including lumbermen. There were about one hundred thousand mechanics, while the fisheries and commerce occupied the attention of fifty thousand. Agriculture, as these figures show, continued to be the leading industry of the country. More modern implements and a more intelligent knowledge of the soil and climate were beginning to produce better results. A change was coming over the face of the land. The forests, which had in the pioneer days grudgingly given way to the little “clearings,” were rapidly receding before the axe of the farmer eager to widen his fields, and of the lumberman seeking timber to satisfy the growing demands of the ship-builders.

Trade flourished in all the provinces. The exports were still mainly farm products, lumber, and, from Nova Scotia, fish. A few mines had been opened, and the mineral output, though small, gave promise of rich returns in the near future. Under the Reciprocity Treaty, from 1854 to 1866, the trade of British North America developed very rapidly. There was, however, one serious disadvantage connected with reciprocity. The provinces were brought to trade separately with the United States, while interprovincial trade quickly declined. It was clear that only an inter-colonial railway could remedy this defect.

**196. Transportation and communication.**—From 1840 to 1867 was, above all, the era of railway building. In 1850 there were about fifty miles of railroads in British North America; in 1867 there were no less than three thousand. The passing of an Act guaranteeing the payment of the interest on all loans to roads over seventy miles in length, had furnished the necessary incentive. Even before the union, the question of an intercolonial railway to connect the Maritime Provinces with Canada had been discussed. Lord Durham, as we have seen, recommended a railway as a practical means of binding the provinces together. Shortly after the union the matter was taken up in earnest by the provinces, and the British government was asked to give aid. Difficulty arose over the choice of a route for the proposed road. There were two possible, one by the valley of the river St. John, passing through St. John and Fredericton, the other following the north-west shore. Great Britain was interested in securing a line removed from the American boundary, suited to the transportation of military supplies in the event of war. New Brunswick naturally favoured the St. John route. Nothing came of these early efforts to build an intercolonial railway, but the provinces, having failed in the greater undertaking, set about constructing such local roads as were needed.

In 1836 the first railway in Canada was opened between Laprairie, near Montreal, and St. John. Ten years later another short line connected Montreal and Lachine. The railway system of Canada had its real beginning in 1851,

when Parliament passed a bill providing for the building of the Grand Trunk road from the western limit of Upper Canada to the city of Quebec and a branch line to Portland, Maine. The branch from Montreal to Portland was completed in 1853, and three years later the main line from Sarnia to Quebec. In the Maritime Provinces one line was soon opened, between St. John and Shediac; another connected Windsor and Truro with Halifax. The advent of the railway worked a marvellous change. Here and there along the newly laid roads little villages sprang into existence. The farmers, hitherto exiled more by imperfect means of transportation than by distance, were brought into convenient connection with the markets of the towns and cities. Associated with the development of the railway system was the building of two great bridges, one over the Niagara gorge, the other spanning the St. Lawrence at Montreal.

The canal system, upon which so much money had been spent in the previous period, was greatly improved before confederation. The opening of several smaller canals along the St. Lawrence, and the improvement of the Welland, furnished a waterway from Lake Huron to the sea for all vessels of moderate draught. The advantage arising from this improved water route was all the greater by reason of the increase in the number of steamboats plying back and forth upon the Great Lakes. Following quickly and naturally upon the opening of the Grand Trunk system, the Allan Steamship Line was founded by Hugh Allan. Six small vessels formed the nucleus of the now famous fleet. Weekly communication with Great Britain was afforded, from Portland in winter, from Quebec in summer.

Shortly after responsible government was established, the control of the post-office was handed over by the British government to the provincial governments. Before this change took place the postage rate was very high. The rate on a letter from Toronto to Montreal was twenty-five cents; on a letter from the provinces to Great Britain, one dollar. Under provincial control, a uniform postal rate of six cents was established for British North America. In 1847 the telegraph was first used in Canada; by 1867 there



were telegraph lines in every province. In 1858 the first Atlantic cable was laid between Ireland and Newfoundland. Although this soon ceased to be used, a new cable re-opened telegraphic communications with the Old Country in 1866.

**197. Education.**—In the field of education there was a general awakening after the union. In Upper Canada, the Rev. Dr. Egerton Ryerson, who had been appointed superintendent of education, laid the foundations of a public school system. Arrangements were made for one school at least in each district, to be managed by trustees elected by the people. The schools were maintained partly by a tax on the property of the district and partly by government grants. Provision was made for public school inspectors. The greatest obstacle in education had been the lack of qualified teachers. A Normal School for the training of teachers was now established at Toronto and another, later, at Ottawa.



EGERTON RYERSON

The facilities for higher education were also increasing. The gap between the public schools and the colleges was bridged by the founding of grammar or high schools. Another man who took a special interest in education was Bishop Strachan. His ambition, to establish a church of England university, was attained in 1843, when King's College was founded. However, the opposition to a church of England college was so strong that the new institution was, in 1849, made undenominational, and renamed the University of Toronto. Refusing to abandon his ideal, Bishop Strachan hastened to England to collect funds for a new denominational institution, and two years later he saw the reward of his labours in the establishment of Trinity University. Queen's and Ottawa Universities were also founded during this period.

To speak of the educational progress of the other provinces

would be to repeat what has been said of Upper Canada. Everywhere the foundations of a public school system were laid; the people were trained to assume the financial responsibility connected with education, normal schools were opened, and high schools and universities founded. In Lower Canada Dr. Meilleur was the first superintendent of education; in Nova Scotia Dr. Tupper was the author of educational reform. During this period McGill assumed a leading position among the universities of the continent under the principalship of Sir William Dawson, a scientist of world-wide reputation.

**198. The churches.**—The pioneer work of the churches was beginning to bear fruit. In many towns the old frame buildings had disappeared, and in their place stood handsome brick structures, while some of the larger cities were adorned with imposing stone edifices. More and more, congregations were becoming self-supporting, and engaging the services of settled ministers. It was a period of universal growth. The Roman Catholic church added to its membership five hundred thousand, the Methodist church three hundred and twenty thousand, the Presbyterian church two hundred thousand, and the church of England one hundred and sixty thousand. One favourable sign of the religious activity of the period was the general interest taken in the missions of the West. All denominations, but especially the Roman Catholic, Anglican and Presbyterian, gave liberally to the West both money and men, in a common effort to christianize the Indians and to guard the morals of the traders and settlers who were there seeking wealth or homes.

### SUMMARY

Between the union and confederation the population of the British provinces more than doubled. Agriculture and lumbering, still the main industries, were rapidly invading the forests. Transportation and communication were marvellously improved by the building of railroads, by the construction of new canals and the deepening of old, and by the introduction of the telegraph. Everywhere were laid the foundations of a public school system. Grammar schools filled the gaps between the public schools and the colleges. The churches not only grew stronger in the older provinces, but also found an outlet for their missionary zeal in the West.

## CHAPTER XXIV

### THE DOMINION

#### THE FIRST TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILWAY, 1867-1885

199. **The first Dominion government.**—Dominion Day, 1867, ushers in a new era of Canadian history. The War of 1812 revealed the unity in feeling of the British North American provinces, but distance, lack of ready means of communication, and local interests stood in the way of actual union. The British North America Act, followed by the building of the intercolonial railway opened in 1876, brought about the union which already existed, at least, in sentiment. Only a century separated the fall of Quebec and the founding of the Dominion, yet that century witnessed great strides of progress. Isolated settlements had grown into provinces; provinces had become self-governing, winning first a representative Assembly, and later a responsible Executive; and finally, the provinces had sought the strength of union. Confederation gave a united people to the British Empire. The course of events since confederation has tended to strengthen the bonds of union. Without interfering with the local rule of the provinces, a strong central government has been established, which guides the affairs of the Canadian people as a whole.

Lord Monck, the first governor-general of the Dominion, called upon Sir John A. Macdonald, who had been knighted for his valuable services in connection with the confederation movement, to form a new government. In doing so Sir John employed great tact. The union had been the work not of one party, but of both; the new government should, therefore, include both Conservatives and Reformers. "I desire," said the new premier, "to bring to my aid, with respect to parties, gentlemen who were active in bringing

about a new form of government . . . and who wish to see it satisfactorily carried out." Six Reformers and six Conservatives were summoned to act



LORD MONCK

with the premier in the first Cabinet. Similarly the parties were equally represented in the Senate, there being thirty-six Conservatives and thirty-six Reformers. In the first session the Dominion Parliament took up matters of great moment. The question of a railway, so vital to the permanence of confederation, came up for discussion. The outcome was the construction of the Intercolonial Railway between the Maritime and the Upper Provinces. Another

question considered was the addition to Canada of the western territory controlled by the Hudson's Bay Company. The success which attended this movement of expansion in the West has already been noted.

The harmony of the union was marred by one jarring note, the cry of Nova Scotia for the repeal of the British North America Act. The people of that province were opposed to confederation. They had not been consulted in the matter, and in addition, they felt that they had not been fairly treated in the arrangement of the terms upon which the province had entered the Dominion. Joseph Howe was at once placed at the head of the movement for repeal. His personal magnetism was so great and the popular indignation so pronounced, that the Conservatives were overwhelmed. At the first election for the House of Commons, Dr. Tupper alone, of all the candidates who favoured confederation, was elected, while at the local elections, which took place on the same day, only two Conservatives succeeded in securing seats. The new Legislature immediately sent a delegation, headed by Howe, to ask the home government for permission to withdraw from the Dominion.

On behalf of the Dominion, Dr. Tupper was sent to London to oppose the wishes of the Legislature. It was a battle royal between these two able and patriotic Nova Scotians, but fortunately for the Dominion and for Nova Scotia, Howe was defeated. The home government refused its consent to the withdrawal of the disaffected province. Howe soon saw that further protest was useless, and now bent all his energies to the securing of better terms for his province. The Dominion government was willing, new arrangements satisfactory to Nova Scotia were made, and Howe accepted a seat in the Dominion Cabinet. Four years later he was appointed lieutenant-governor of his native province, but died only a few weeks after taking office.

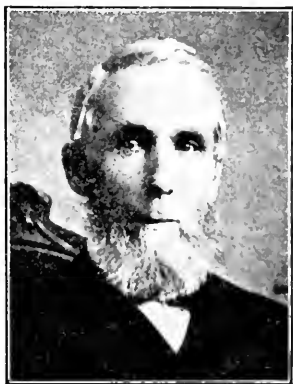
**200. The Canadian Pacific Railway.**—No greater task had confronted any Parliament of the Dominion than the building of a transcontinental railway. That this task should be undertaken within two years was the condition of British Columbia's entrance into the confederation. In 1872, therefore, the year in which Lord Dufferin became governor-general, Sir John A. Macdonald introduced the question in Parliament. Two companies straightway sought the charter, one the Inter-Oceanic, the other the Canada Pacific. Unable to choose between the two companies, the government chartered a third, known as the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. The great enterprise was well under way, when suddenly a member of the House arose and accused the government of having sold the charter to the Canadian Pacific Railway Company for a sum of money to be used for election purposes. A committee was appointed to inquire into the charge, but the evidence was so conflicting that nothing came of the investigation. The matter hung fire for some



LORD DUFFERIN

time, every delay throwing suspicion upon the government and strengthening the opposition. A second committee of inquiry, appointed by the governor-general, refused to pass judgment, and simply laid before Parliament the evidence that it had gathered. A heated debate followed. Finally, the premier resigned, for he saw that when the question came to a vote the government would be defeated.

Alexander Mackenzie, the leader of the opposition, was called upon to form a new government. Meanwhile, the Canadian Pacific Railway Company had thrown up its charter, much to the dissatisfaction of British Columbia. The new premier at once announced that the plans of the



ALEXANDER MACKENZIE

recent government could not be fully carried out, and proposed to build the railway gradually, as the finances of the country permitted. The Pacific province insisted upon the fulfilment of the conditions under which it had entered the confederation, and even sent delegates to England to protest against further delay. Lord Carnarvon, the colonial secretary, offered to act as arbitrator between the Dominion and British Columbia, and the offer was accepted. According to the "Carnarvon

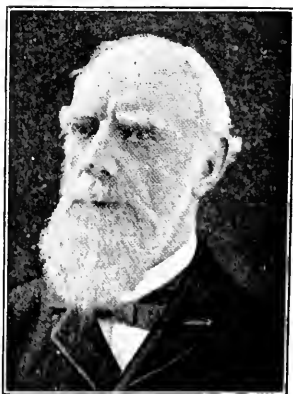
Terms," as they are called, the government agreed to construct immediately a wagon road and telegraph line along the route of the proposed railway, and by the year 1890 to complete the railway itself from the Pacific to Lake Superior, where it would connect with the American roads and with the Canadian steamship lines. The delay caused by the Mackenzie government put a severe strain upon British Columbia's loyalty to the Dominion.

During the five years that the Mackenzie government remained in power, they proposed and carried many important measures. Among these were the establishment

of a Supreme Court for Canada, and the introduction of the ballot in connection with elections for the House of Commons. But they were hampered in their efforts by the hostility of the Senate and by a strong and vigorous opposition in the Commons itself. Two years before the next election Sir John Macdonald began to advocate what was called the "National Policy." There had been such a falling off in trade that the revenue returns were greatly reduced. The government had to face an ever increasing deficit. The "National Policy" proposed to raise the tariff so as not only to produce a revenue, but also to protect the young industries of the country. "Canada for the Canadians" was the watchword of the Conservative party. The tariff became the main question upon which the two political parties differed. In the elections of 1878 the cry of "Canada for the Canadians," following as it did a period of commercial depression, proved very attractive, and carried the Conservatives back to power. Mr. Mackenzie resigned, and Sir John A. Macdonald again assumed the reins of government. The same year closed the administration of Lord Dufferin, one of Canada's ablest governors. During his term of office he visited every part of the Dominion, and did much to strengthen the feeling of unity and to bind Canada more closely to Great Britain. His successor was the Marquis of Lorne, whose wife was the Princess Louise, a daughter of Queen Victoria.

Sir John A. Macdonald immediately took up again the question of a transcontinental road. Mr. Mackenzie's proposal to have the government build the railway was discarded. Reverting to his former policy, the premier

entrusted the work to a syndicate of capitalists bearing the name of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. Two promi-



LORD STRATHCONA

nent members of the company were Mr. George Stephen, a Montreal merchant, and Mr. Donald A. Smith, an official of the Hudson's Bay Company, both now favourably known under the titles of Lord Mount Stephen and Lord Strathecona. The road was to be finished by the year 1890, but with such vigour was the work pressed forward that it was completed five years earlier. Construction was begun from both ends, the two sections meeting in the Rockies, where the last spike was driven by Lord Strathecona in November, 1885. The importance to the Dominion of the enterprise thus successfully carried out was very great. Without a transcontinental railway the union of the East and West could never have been permanent.

### SUMMARY

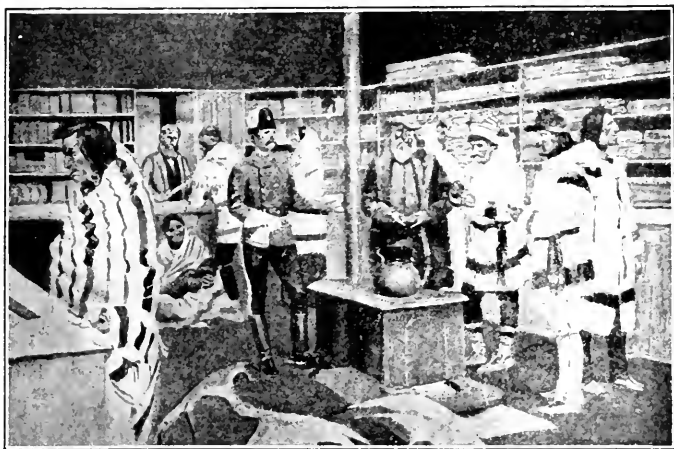
Sir John A. Macdonald was the first premier of the Dominion. As confederation was the achievement of both parties, Sir John wisely called to his first Cabinet an equal number of Reformers and Conservatives. The building of railways was vital to the permanence of the Dominion. To this task, therefore, the government first directed its attention. The Intercolonial Railway was built to connect the Maritime and Upper Provinces. That the construction of a transcontinental railway should be undertaken within two years was the condition of British Columbia's entrance into confederation. In 1872 the question was first discussed in Parliament. A scandal arose over the contract, and in the next year the government was forced to resign. It was not until the return of the Conservatives to power five years later that the building of the road was begun. With such vigour was the work pressed that the last spike was driven in 1885.

### THE NORTH-WEST, 1870-19—

201. **The North-West Territories organized.**—Out of the Riel rebellion, as we have seen, emerged the province of Manitoba. No sooner was order restored than settlers began to flock into the country. Immigration was encouraged by free grants of land. Many farmers from Eastern Canada moved west, while from Europe came an ever increasing number of colonists, of British, Scandinavian, and German stock. The newcomers spread beyond the



limits of Manitoba, many finding their way into the valley of the Saskatchewan, a few even to the foothills of the Rockies. This North-Western Territory was governed by the lieutenant-governor of Manitoba and a Council of eleven members. In 1876 a change took place. The eastern section of the country, called Keewatin, was placed under the personal control of the lieutenant-governor of Manitoba, while the western was given a resident governor and a Council of five members. A few years later four provisional districts were organized—Alberta, Assiniboia, Atha-

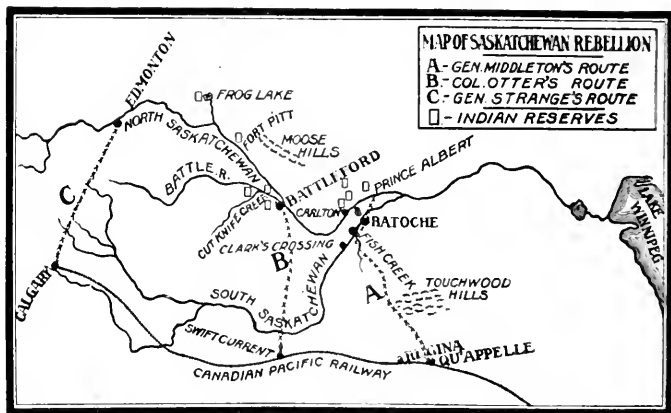


THE INTERIOR OF A HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY TRADING-POST  
SHOWING MOUNTED POLICEMAN, INDIANS, AND MÉTIS

baska, and Saskatchewan. Regina, situated upon the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, then under construction, was chosen as the seat of government.

**202. The Saskatchewan rebellion, 1885.**—The advent of the railway gave promise of peaceful and rapid progress, when suddenly a second rebellion broke out. After the Red River rebellion, two hundred and forty acres of land were granted to each half-breed. As the province began to fill with settlers, many, in spite of this liberal grant, withdrew westwards, and settled on the banks of the Saskatchewan.

With the formation of the North-West Territories the hated civilization began to creep in upon them once more. The rapid disappearance of the buffalo, upon which Indians and half-breeds alike depended for a living, threatened a general famine. The natural unrest of the *Métis* was increased by a fear that their lands, of which they had received no patents or title-deeds, would be snatched away by speculators. Great dissatisfaction was felt, too, with the government's method of surveying the land, which interfered with the old French plan of having all the farms fronting on the river. If anything further were needed to provoke rebellion, it was the presence of Louis Riel, who,



returning from exile, suddenly appeared upon the scene to champion once more the cause of his restless compatriots. At first Riel was moderate, and there was every reason to expect that the government, though slow to act, would eventually remove all causes of discontent, when an unfortunate encounter of armed men precipitated rebellion. Near Duck Lake, within the angle formed by the North and South Saskatchewan, a force of Mounted Police and Prince Albert volunteers, while attempting to bring in an outlying store of supplies, was met by a band of rebels and driven back with a loss of twelve men killed.

The position of the white settlers of the Saskatchewan

valley was serious. To maintain order over the wide prairies stretching from Manitoba to the Rocky Mountains there were at hand only five hundred Mounted Police. The real danger lay, not in a revolt of the *Métis*, but in the possibility of a general rising of the Indians, of whom there were over thirty thousand in the North-West. Prince Albert, Battleford, and Fort Pitt were exposed to the attack of either the *Métis* or the Indians. Fortunately only the Crees joined the rebels. The most serious risings of the Indians took place near Battleford and Fort Pitt, among the followers of Poundmaker and Big Bear. The heart of the rebellion was the village of Batoche, the centre of the *Métis* settlements. Here Riel, forgetful of his overthrow at Fort Garry fifteen years before, again raised the standard of revolt.

The news of the fight at Duck Lake was the signal for a rising among the disaffected Indians. Big Bear's warriors, descending upon the little settlement of Frog Lake, near Fort Pitt, disarmed and shot nine men, and carried off a number of women and children. They then moved upon Fort Pitt, a group of log houses in the form of a square but practically defenceless. The commander, Francis Dickens, a son of the famous novelist, seeing that the place could not long hold out against the enemy, withdrew his men and escaped down the river to Battleford.

When the report of the rebellion reached Ottawa, the Dominion government took prompt action. As in the case of the Red River rising, the call for volunteers met with an eager response on all sides. Distance made the transportation of troops very difficult. From Ottawa to Qu'Appelle was over sixteen hundred miles, from Qu'Appelle to Batoche, two hundred and forty. To add to the difficulty of the undertaking there were several gaps in the Canadian Pacific Railway along the north shore of Lake Superior, which necessitated the use of sleighs in transporting guns and military stores. In spite of all obstacles, within less than two months forty-four hundred men were placed in the field, all save the Winnipeg contingent being from Eastern Canada.

General Middleton, commander-in-chief of the Canadian militia, making the Canadian Pacific Railway the base line

of his operations, prepared to crush the rebellion in all its centres at once. Three places were in immediate danger, Prince Albert, Battleford, and Fort Pitt; three relief expeditions were provided for in the plan of campaign. General Middleton was to advance from Qu'Appelle to Batoche, Riel's headquarters, Colonel Otter from Swift Current to Battleford, and General Strange from Calgary to Edmonton.

A march of twelve days brought the main force to Clark's Crossing, on the Saskatchewan, where it had been arranged to meet the steamer *Northcote* coming down the river with reinforcements and supplies. Although the steamer had not yet arrived, General Middleton divided his force, one-half on either bank, and advanced in the direction of Batoche. A few days later, as the division on the east bank was entering the ravine of Fish Creek, it came suddenly upon a strong force of the rebels under the command of Gabriel Dumont, a buffalo hunter whom Riel had chosen to be his lieutenant. In the skirmish which followed, Middleton lost ten men, the enemy eleven. Although Dumont fell back in the night, Middleton decided to await the arrival of the *Northcote*. On May 5th the delayed steamer arrived, and the advance was continued, two days' march bringing the force within striking distance of the rebels' headquarters. The ground before the village was found to be honeycombed with rifle-pits. Three days of skirmishing before these entrenchments wore out the patience of the volunteers, so that on the fourth day General Middleton had great difficulty in holding them. In the afternoon all restraint was thrown off, and the line, led by Colonel Williams of the Midland Battalion, swept forwards at a run, drove the enemy's riflemen from their trenches, and pursued them through the village beyond. The back of the rebellion was broken, and three days later Riel gave himself up. Without loss of time General Middleton pressed on to Prince Albert, and thence to Battleford.

Ten days after leaving Swift Current, Colonel Otter halted within three miles of Battleford. In order to prevent Poundmaker from joining Big Bear, he decided to move in the direction of the former's reserve. This move led to an

engagement with the Indians at Cut Knife Creek. The superiority of the Indians in number and the break down of his two guns forced Colonel Otter to fall back in the direction of Battleford. The loss sustained in this fight was eight killed and fourteen wounded.

Meanwhile, General Strange had relieved Edmonton from the danger of an Indian attack, and was descending the North Saskatchewan in order to hem in Big Bear between his force and that of Colonel Otter, stationed at Battleford. Alarmed at the strength of the forces closing in upon him, Big Bear began to retreat. Major Steele was sent in pursuit. Hundreds of miles were covered before the fleeing band was broken up and its chief captured. Meanwhile, at Battleford, Poundmaker and his followers had come in and laid down their arms. With Riel, Poundmaker, and Big Bear in custody, the rebellion was at an end; and it only remained to punish the rebel leaders who had defied the authority of the Canadian government. Riel was tried at Regina, and, though ably defended, was found guilty of treason and sentenced to be hanged. Eight Indians also paid the death penalty for murder, while others were imprisoned, among the latter Poundmaker, who died in prison.

**203. Growth of the North-West.**—Although a trying experience while it lasted, the Saskatchewan rebellion was not without its good results. The Dominion government was brought to recognize the claims of the *Métis*, and did so by promptly issuing title-deeds of their lands. In recognition of their growing importance, the North-West Territories were granted representation in the Senate and the House of Commons. To preserve order and to protect the lives of the settlers scattered throughout the country, the Mounted Police force was considerably increased.

The greatest influence of the rebellion was not upon the North-West alone, but upon the whole Dominion. All the provinces were interested in the suppression of the revolt; their sons either shared in the fighting or were pressing to the front when stopped by the news of Riel's surrender. Common hardships upon the march, common dangers on the field of battle, and the common anxiety of

friends at home made real in the hearts of Canadians the union which confederation had brought about.

Rebellion and the rapid growth of population which followed, showed the Dominion authorities the wisdom of giving to the North-West Territories a stronger government. The Council was abolished and its place taken by an elective Assembly. For a time the lieutenant-governor did not recognize the independence of the Assembly, but in the end that body came to enjoy powers practically equal to those of the provincial Assemblies of the Dominion.

**204. Alberta and Saskatchewan.**—In 1905 still further progress was made in the way of organization. By an Act of Parliament introduced by the government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, two new provinces, Alberta and Saskatchewan, were formed from a portion of the North-West Territories. The new provinces formally came into being on September 1st, 1905. At present Saskatchewan is represented in the Dominion Parliament by four senators and ten members of the House of Commons, and Alberta by four senators and seven members of the Commons. The remaining part of the North-West Territories, including Keewatin, is still under the control of the Dominion government.

**205. The Yukon.**—The gold seekers of the far West were moving gradually northwards. From river to river they advanced, until, in 1896, gold was found in large quantities upon the Klondike, a branch of the Yukon River. The news spread quickly, and, although the newly discovered treasureland lay close to the Arctic Circle, thousands of fortune hunters were soon pouring in along the northern trails. Upon the Klondike, near its junction with the Yukon, a cluster of tents and log cabins gave promise of a permanent settlement, a promise which has been fulfilled in the now famous Dawson City. At first the Yukon Territory was controlled by the North-West government. Later it was organized as a separate district, under an official called the commissioner of the Yukon, appointed by the governor-general-in-Council. The commissioner is advised by a Council, in part appointed by the governor-general-in-Council and in part elected by the people of the district.

More recently the Yukon has been granted representation in the House of Commons.

### SUMMARY

So rapidly did the country west of Manitoba fill up that it was soon found necessary to organize the North-West Territory into four districts: Alberta, Assiniboia, Athabaska and Saskatchewan. A resident governor and Council were appointed. After the Red River Rebellion many of the discontented half-breeds withdrew westwards to the banks of the Saskatchewan. As the hated civilization once more crept up upon them, they again arose in rebellion under Riel. The call for volunteers to suppress the revolt met with a ready response from all parts of the Dominion. With the restoration of order the Territories entered upon an era of progress. They were given an Assembly and representation in the Dominion Parliament. In 1905 the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan were organized and became part of the Dominion. The Yukon Territory also was organized.

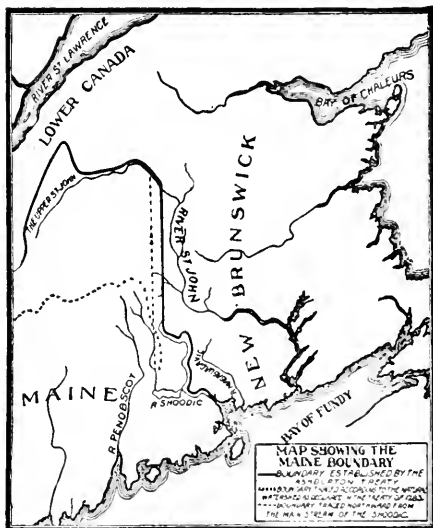
### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS, 1783-19—

206. **Treaties.**—Striking evidence of Canada's growth as a nation within the empire is found in the increase of her influence in dealings with foreign powers. On a recent boundary tribunal two of the three British members were Canadians. To understand this change it is necessary to review the various treaties which have marked the course of Canadian history.

207. **The Maine boundary.**—The treaty of Paris, in 1783, by which Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States, was the first of a series of international dealings affecting Canada. This first treaty fixed the southern boundary line of Canada. In the east the boundary between Maine and Nova Scotia was to be the St. Croix River, and a "line drawn from its source to the highlands dividing the waters falling into the Atlantic from those emptying themselves into the St. Lawrence." The boundary was further defined as running through the middle of Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, and the Lake of the Woods. From the "north-west angle of the Lake of the Woods" the

boundary was to run due west to the Mississippi. The indefinite terms of the treaty gave rise to dispute at a later date.

When the treaty of Paris was concluded, there was no river bearing the name of St. Croix. To what river, then, did the treaty refer? The United States said the Magaguadavic, Great Britain the Schoodic or Shoodie. Increasing friction led to the appointment of a commission to settle the



matter, and in 1798 a decision was given in favour of Great Britain. But for some reason the eastern branch of the Schoodic was chosen instead of the western, although the latter is the main stream. The line above the Schoodic remained unsettled. For many years the question stood open, and on more than one occasion nearly caused war. At one time the question was

referred to the king of the Netherlands. His award was a mere compromise, simply fixing the boundary line in the course of the river St. John, without attempting to define the "highlands." The United States refused to accept the award, and once more Maine and New Brunswick were exposed to the danger of an outbreak between the rival lumbermen who occupied the disputed territory.

Finally, in 1842, a settlement was brought about. Lord Ashburton representing Great Britain, and Mr. Daniel Webster on behalf of the United States, drew up the terms of what is known as the Ashburton Treaty. Lord Ashburton, ignoring the "highlands" referred to in the treaty of



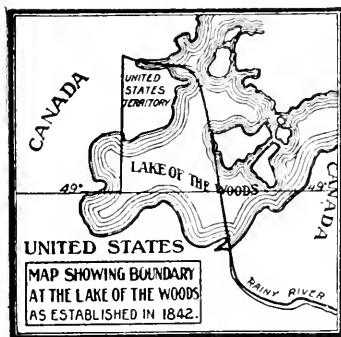
Paris, consented to a boundary line running north from the east branch of the Schoodic to the St. John, and thence along the bed of the latter stream. Several small matters connected with the boundary were not, however, definitely settled until a much later date.

**208. The Rush-Bagot Treaty.**—In 1817, an agreement signed by Mr. Rush on behalf of the United States, and by Mr. Bagot on behalf of Great Britain, known as the Rush-Bagot Treaty, was made by which the armaments of each nation on the Great Lakes were limited. It was agreed that each nation should maintain “on Lake Ontario one vessel not exceeding one hundred tons burden and armed with an eighteen pound cannon; on the Upper Lakes two vessels not exceeding the like burden each, and armed with like force, and on the waters of Lake Champlain, one vessel not exceeding like burden and armed with like force.” This treaty is still in force, although with the consent of Canada, several war-vessels, much heavier armed, are maintained by the United States as training ships on the Great Lakes.

**209. The Fisheries question.**—The number and variety of fish with which the coast waters of Canada teem have made the fisheries question a vital one. When the United States became independent of Great Britain, American fishermen lost the privilege of fishing in the territorial waters—that is, within three miles of the coast—of the British provinces. In 1818 an arrangement known as the “London Convention” was made whereby Americans were allowed to fish around the Magdalen Islands and along certain parts of the coasts of Newfoundland and Labrador, and also to land on these coasts to dry or cure fish. They could enter bays or harbours only “for the purpose of shelter and of repairing damages therein, or of purchasing wood or of obtaining water.” The strictness with which Great Britain enforced these limitations caused much ill-feeling. The Reciprocity Treaty of 1854 put an end to all unpleasantness by giving to American fishermen the right to fish upon the coasts of the British provinces without any restriction as to the three-mile limit. Twelve years later the United

States refused to renew the Reciprocity treaty, and the fisheries question fell back to its former standing.

**210. The Oregon Treaty, 1846.**—The boundary line between American and British territory in the West was fixed by the London Convention of 1818 at the forty-ninth parallel. At the Lake of the Woods a wedge of American territory was thrust into Canada's side. The forty-ninth parallel was the accepted line as far as the Rockies. It was agreed that for the time being the country beyond the mountains should be "free and open" to both nations. In 1846 the Oregon Treaty continued the boundary line



along the forty-ninth parallel to the channel separating Vancouver Island from the mainland. The line was to follow this channel south-westerly to the Pacific Ocean. It remained to be seen what channel was meant.

**211. The Washington Treaty.**—In 1871 an attempt was made to settle all outstanding disputes between Great Britain and the United States. For the first time a Canadian was chosen to act as one of the British commissioners. When the Commission met at Washington, Sir John A. Macdonald, premier of the newly formed Dominion, was present on Canada's behalf as one of the Commissioners. The United States claimed compensation for damage done to her trade by a Southern cruiser, the *Alabama*, which had been fitted out in a British harbour. This claim was referred to arbitration, and Great Britain promptly paid the amount fixed by the arbitrators. Canada's counter-claim on account of the Fenian raids was withdrawn at the request of the British government. To overcome the dissatisfaction of Canadians at this surrender of their claims, Great Britain guaranteed a large loan to be spent on railways and canals. The navigation of the river

St. Lawrence, the canals, and Lake Michigan was thrown open to both nations. The commissioners also dealt with the question of the disputed channel between Vancouver Island and the mainland. The ownership of San Juan was involved, the subjects of both nations having for several years occupied the island jointly. The question was referred for settlement to the German emperor, who a year later gave his award in favour of the United States. With a view to removing another difficulty, Canadian fisheries were thrown open to Americans for ten years, the United States, in return, agreeing to pay the sum of five and a half million dollars. This amount was determined upon by three arbitrators who met at Halifax six years later, Mr. A. T. Galt being the Canadian representative. At the end of the ten years the American government refused to renew this arrangement, so that the whole question of the fisheries was again opened. At the present time American fishermen are allowed to take out licenses to fish in Canadian waters. It is important to note that the Washington Treaty did not come into force until ratified by the Canadian Parliament.

**212. The Alaskan disputes.**—When British and Russian fur traders met upon the Pacific coast, it became necessary to fix definitely the line dividing the territories of the two powers interested. This was done by treaty in 1825. In 1867, the year of Confederation, the United States purchased Alaska from Russia. Out of this purchase have arisen two disputes between Great Britain and the United States, the one connected with Behring Sea sealing rights, the other with the Alaskan boundary. The United States claimed that the Behring Sea was a "closed sea," and therefore American territory, and also that the seals therein were an

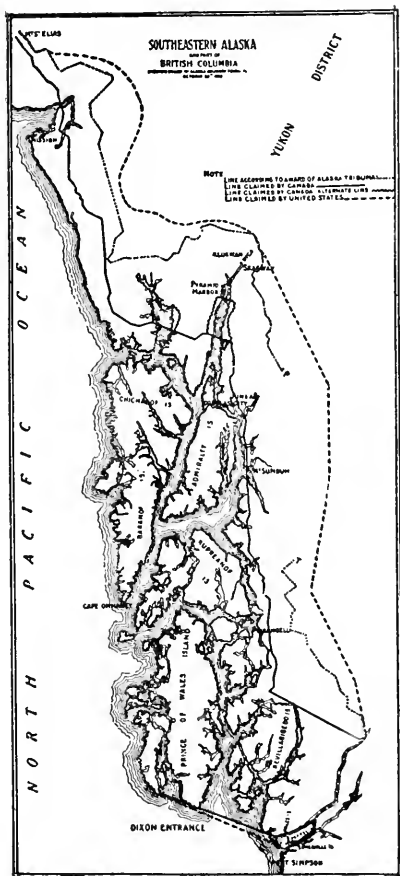


SIR ALEXANDER GALT

American herd, the property of the "Alaska Company." The trouble was brought to a head by the seizure of several British schooners by American revenue-cutters. The ques-

tion was wisely submitted to a tribunal, which met in Paris in 1893. Again Canada was represented by her premier, then Sir John Thompson. The decision of the tribunal was against the claims of the United States. Certain regulations were laid down to prevent a wholesale destruction of the seals.

In taking over Alaska from Russia, the United States secured all the rights of that nation as laid down in the treaty of 1825. According to this treaty the boundary was to run as follows: "Commencing from the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, the line shall ascend to the north along Portland Channel as far as the point of the continent where it strikes the fifty-sixth degree of north latitude; from this point the line shall



THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY

follow the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast." From Mt. St. Elias to the Arctic Ocean the hundred and forty-first meridian of west longitude was to be the boundary. Where the mountains parallel with the

coast were more than ten marine leagues distant from the ocean, Russian territory was not to exceed that distance in width. The meaning of the treaty was not altogether clear. There are several mountain ranges parallel with the coast. The coast, too, is broken by deep bays, and the question arose whether the boundary line was to be ten leagues from the head of these bays or from their mouths. There was some doubt, also, as to the course of the Portland Channel, and the settlement of this point involved the possession of several islands.

The discovery of gold in and beyond the disputed territory made the Alaskan boundary an all-important question which both nations were anxious to have settled. Finally the interpretation of the British-Russian treaty was left to a commission, composed of three representatives from the United States, and three from Great Britain, two of the latter being Canadians. The commission met in London in September, 1903. The decision was, upon the whole, favourable to the American claims. In connection with the boundary line on the mainland, it was decided that this should be measured from the heads of the larger bays.

**213. Recent arrangements with the United States.**—As many questions relating to the use of the international waterways had arisen between Canada and the United States, it was agreed in 1903 to refer all matters in dispute to a Commission consisting of four representatives from each country. This Commission was given power to form a policy for the regulation of the international waterways so as best to preserve these waters for the benefit of each country. Much useful work has already been done by the Commission which had not in 1910 completed its labours.

In 1908 an agreement was reached between Great Britain and the United States which provided for the more accurate marking out of the boundary line between the United States and Canada. A joint boundary Commission was appointed under this agreement, and this Commission is still in 1910 engaged in the work of delimiting accurately the international boundaries. At the same time an arrangement was made for the better regulation of the inland

fisheries. For this purpose a Commission was appointed consisting of one representative from Canada and one from the United States. It is expected that the report of this Commission will remove all cause of friction between the two countries in connection with inland fisheries. In 1909 a special arrangement was reached between Great Britain and the United States relating to the Atlantic fisheries, in which both Canada and Newfoundland are concerned. The whole case was by this arrangement referred to a Court of Arbitration sitting at the Hague. The decision of this Court, of which the chief-justice of Canada was a member, upheld the claims of Canada and Newfoundland on all the important points raised.

**214. The French Convention, 1907.**—The growing influence of Canada, and the recognition of her right to play an important part in connection with treaties affecting her own interests was strikingly shown by the French Convention of 1907. In this year it was proposed to enter into a commercial arrangement with the French Republic, and for this purpose two of the Canadian ministers were formally appointed by the British government to conduct the entire negotiations in conjunction with the British Ambassador to France. This treaty which affected the commercial relations between the two countries was concluded during the year and was subsequently ratified by the Canadian Parliament.

### SUMMARY

Evidence of Canada's growth as a nation is found in the increase of her influence in dealings with foreign powers. This growing influence is seen in a review of the various questions of international interest which have marked the course of Canadian history—the Maine boundary, the Rush-Bagot Treaty, the Fisheries, the Oregon Treaty, the Washington Treaty, and the Alaskan Dispute.

### CANADA AND THE EMPIRE, 1885-19—

**216. Dominion leaders.**—The Confederation period of Canadian history has produced not a few statesmen, who have dealt ably with questions of Dominion, even of im-

perial, interest. The most illustrious of them all was Sir John Alexander Macdonald, whose name is so closely associated with two great events—the formation of the Dominion and the building of a trans-continental railway. He died in 1891, having been for nineteen years premier of the Dominion. His death was followed a year later by that of his political opponent, Alexander Mackenzie, a man whose honesty has become proverbial in Canadian history. Sir John's long tenure of office was followed by four short administrations, those of Sir John Abbott, Sir John Thompson, Sir Mackenzie Bowell, and Sir Charles Tupper. In 1896 the long rule of the Conservatives, which began in 1878, was brought to a close when the Liberals were returned to power under the leadership of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who is still in 1910 premier of the Dominion.



SIR WILFRID LAURIER

**215. The unity of the British Empire.**—Next to the expansion and consolidation of the Dominion, the most important fact of recent Canadian history has been the strengthening of the ties binding Canada to the British Empire. An event occurred in 1894 which had an important bearing upon this movement; namely, the gathering of the Colonial Conference at Ottawa. Delegates were present from Canada, New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, and South Africa; the Earl of Jersey, representing Great Britain, presided. The object of the conference was to promote trade and good feeling among the colonies, thereby fostering the unity of the British Empire. One result of this gathering has been the laying of a cable between Canada and Australia, completing an all-British system. The burden of this enterprise was shared by Great Britain, Australia, and Canada. In the

year 1902 Sir Sandford Fleming of Ottawa, who is commonly called the father of the Pacific cable, was able to send around the world on British lines a message of congratulation to the governor-general of Canada. The imperial bonds were drawn still closer by the Diamond Jubilee, the celebration in 1897 of the sixtieth year of Queen Victoria's reign. Upon this occasion the greatest enthusiasm prevailed throughout the Empire, troops from the various colonies taking part in the military parade. The colonial premiers took advantage of the opportunity to hold another meeting to discuss matters of intercolonial trade.

The building of the Canadian Pacific Railway, which had such an important bearing upon the expansion of the Dominion, was an event of great moment to the British Empire. The construction of the transcontinental road was followed by the establishment of a Pacific steamship line connecting Canada's western coast with the Asiatic East. The Atlantic and Pacific steamship lines and the Canadian Pacific Railway furnished Great Britain with an alternative route to Australia and India. In the event of a war with an Eastern power this route would be invaluable to the British Empire. Another act which tended to consolidate the empire was the granting by the Canadian government of a preference on all goods imported into Canada from Great Britain. In 1898, also, through the efforts of Sir William Mulock, the postmaster-general of Canada, a letter rate of two cents an ounce was adopted for the United Kingdom, Canada, Newfoundland, Cape Colony, and Natal. This rate was afterwards extended to other parts of the British dominions. Further, under Sir Wilfrid Laurier, another great transcontinental railway, the Grand Trunk Pacific, has been chartered, which will provide yet another route across Canada of national and imperial importance.

Late in 1899 after protracted negotiations the Transvaal Republic in South Africa served notice of war on Great Britain. Public feeling was aroused. It was felt that the destiny of all parts of the empire lay in their permanent alliance, and an enthusiastic desire to aid the motherland displayed itself. Canada at once sent to South Africa a con-



tingent of over a thousand men. In two weeks' time the contingent, including representatives from every province, was enlisted, equipped, and transported to Quebec, ready to embark for South Africa. Later, when it was seen that the war was likely to be prolonged, several more contingents were hurried to the distant battle ground. Eighty-three hundred and seventy-two men, including five hundred and ninety-seven Strathcona Horse, was Canada's contribution to the forces of the Empire. Of these, two hundred and fifty-two were wounded, while two hundred and twenty-four lie buried beneath the veldts of South Africa. In marching, scouting, and fighting, the Canadian troops proved themselves worthy sons of the Empire, and in several hard-fought engagements bore themselves with credit beside Britain's most honoured regiments. The eagerness with which the colonies came to the aid of the motherland in the Boer War proved the unity of the British Empire.

While the war was still in progress, Queen Victoria died. As the cables flashed the news around the Empire, Britons everywhere mourned the loss of the sovereign who had "wrought her people lasting good." In the autumn of the year which saw the late queen laid to rest, the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York, (now King George V and Queen Mary) made a tour of the Empire and were everywhere enthusiastically welcomed. In the following year King Edward VII and Queen Alexandra were crowned. All the colonies were represented in the coronation ceremonies, and no representatives from the Dominions over the Seas were more graciously received than those of Canada.

In 1908 the Tercentenary of the founding of Quebec by Champlain was celebrated with great magnificence on the



KING EDWARD VII

site of the historic city. Representatives were present from France and from the United States, and to add imperial significance to the celebration the king was represented by the heir to the throne, the Prince of Wales. The enthusiasm with which the Prince was received showed to the world the loyalty of Canadians to the Empire, and their determination to do their share in maintaining its dignity and power. Early in the next year, however, the startling news was sent over the world that Edward VII was dead. Nowhere was the news received with more sincere regret than in Canada, which King Edward had visited in person nearly fifty years before. The whole country joined in mourning for the king who had proved himself such a wise sovereign and able statesman.

### SUMMARY

An important factor in recent Canadian history has been the strengthening of the ties binding Canada to the British Empire. The Colonial Conference at Ottawa in 1894 had for its aim the promotion of trade and good feeling among the colonies. The Diamond Jubilee of 1897 drew the imperial bonds still closer. The building of the Canadian Pacific Railway, furnishing Great Britain with an alternative route to the far East, was an undertaking of imperial interest. Nothing has done more to draw Canada to the Empire than the sacrifice of her sons on the veldts of South Africa.

## CHAPTER XXIV

### CANADA AT THE OPENING OF THE NEW CENTURY

1867-19—

**217. Transportation.**—The population of the Dominion at the close of the nineteenth century was nearly five and a half millions, and is now about seven millions. While all the provinces have grown, the growth of the West has been most marked. At the opening of the century, the population of the three prairie provinces was about four hundred thousand; now it has reached more than the million mark. The development of Western Canada has been the result of the building of railways. At the time of Confederation there were twenty-two hundred miles of railway; at the close of the century, there were no less than seventeen thousand, controlled mainly by the Canadian Pacific, the Grand Trunk, the Canadian Northern, and the Intercolonial. The total mileage of the Dominion now exceeds twenty-three thousand. With the completion of the two new transcontinental lines, the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern, this mileage will be greatly increased. In addition there were in operation in 1910 over one thousand miles of electric railways.

The advent of the Canadian Pacific Railway has worked a marvellous change in the West. At the terminus of the road there sprang up, as by magic, the bustling city of Vancouver, while the line throughout was soon dotted with villages. Many of these have now risen to the dignity of towns, a few even aspire to take rank with the cities. To north and south the road has thrown out branch lines, everywhere developing new districts. This experience is being repeated in the case of the Grand Trunk Pacific, which has opened up a new North-West. There is no reason to doubt that in the near future the site of

Prince Rupert, the western terminus of the new road, will be covered by a city that will prove a worthy rival of Vancouver.

By an Act passed in 1901, the railways of Canada were placed under the control of a Commission of three members, afterwards increased to six. The Railway Commission has power over the regulation of rates, transportation facilities, and generally over all matters in which there may be a conflict between the interests of the Railway Companies and the interests of the people. The powers of the Commission were subsequently extended to include control over telegraphs, telephones and express companies. The Commission has proved of great benefit to Canada and has fully justified its creation.

The development of canals has kept pace with that of railways. The Welland Canal and those of the St. Lawrence system have been deepened, while Lake Superior and Lake Huron have been connected by the Sault Ste. Marie Canal, running through Canadian territory. Canada has spent over ninety million dollars on the construction and enlargement of her canals—seventy-two miles in all. It is now possible for a vessel drawing fourteen feet of water to load at Fort William and pass through to Montreal, a distance of fourteen hundred miles. The improvement of these waterways has resulted in a great increase in Canadian shipping. Countless steamers and vessels of all kinds ply back and forth over the Great Lakes. The steamer is no longer a novelty. Its shrill whistle has broken the silence of the rivers and lakes of both East and West, and even of the distant North. Upon the Atlantic and upon the Pacific, Canadian steamship lines connect the commerce of Canada with that of the outside world.

**218. Industrial growth.**—Agriculture continues to be the leading industry of Canada. About one-half the people are dependent upon farming operations for a living. In 1908 the total field crops from twenty-seven million acres, yielded four hundred and thirty-two million dollars. In the older provinces farming has reached a scientific stage, and the most is made of every acre of land. The pioneer days have long since passed, and on every hand are to be seen signs of

prosperity. Fine roads run for miles and miles past well-fenced farms, with comfortable houses and large barns. Artistic furniture, fine clothing, and modern buggies tell of prosperous days. The West wears a newer look. To this wheat land—the greatest in the world—all eyes are turned. Settlers are flocking in from Eastern Canada, from the United States, and from many countries of Europe.

Where wheat fields cease, mineral veins begin. Coal, iron, copper, nickel, gold, silver, corundum, and asbestos are found in inexhaustible supply. The value of Canada's output of minerals in 1907 was \$86,183,477, including coal, \$24,560,238; iron, \$9,125,226; copper, \$11,478,644; gold, \$8,264,756; silver, \$8,329,221. Moreover, the future will reveal the wealth which the North holds beneath its rock-bound surface.

The manufactures of Canada have taken great strides since Confederation. One fourth of the people are dependent upon manufactures for a livelihood. The manufactures of 1900 were valued at four hundred and eighty-one million dollars, those of 1906 at seven hundred and eighteen million, an increase of fifty per cent. Canada's fisheries are the most extensive in the world, including nearly thirteen thousand miles of sea coast and innumerable lakes and rivers. The returns from this industry in 1907-8 were valued at twenty-five million dollars. On all sides are evidences of growth,—thirty chartered banks, eleven thousand eight hundred and twenty-three post-offices, thirty-two thousand miles of telegraph lines, and one hundred and thirty-six thousand miles of telephone wires.

The industrial progress of Canada has been materially advanced by an Act introduced into the House of Commons by Mr. Rodolphe Lemieux and known as the Lemieux Act. This Act provides a means of settling of disputes between employers and employees on the basis of an investigation before a board of arbitrators. The result of the passage of the Act has been the prevention of many strikes, and a better understanding between the employers and their workmen.

In order to retain as far as possible the enormous natural resources of the country for the benefit of the people as a

whole. the Dominion government in 1909 appointed a Commission containing representatives from all the provinces, to make recommendations in regard to the best means of preserving this great national heritage. The Commission has only begun its work, and at present nothing can be said as to the results that will follow its appointment.

**219. The Canadian militia.**—Conscious of a new strength growing out of union, Canada after Confederation undertook the burden of her own defence. All British troops, except those at Halifax, were withdrawn. The Canadian military system is under the control of a militia council, the chairman of which is the minister of militia. The other members are the chief of the general staff, the adjutant-general, the quartermaster-general, the master-general of ordinance, the deputy-minister of militia, and the accountant of the militia department. Of course the minister is the official who is responsible to Parliament for the conduct of military affairs. The Canadian militia consists, with certain exceptions, of all the male inhabitants of the country between the ages of eighteen and sixty. These may be called out for service in the following order: (1) Unmarried men or childless widowers between eighteen and thirty; (2) Unmarried men or childless widowers between thirty and forty-five; (3) Men between eighteen and forty-five, who are married, or widowers with children; (4) Men between forty-five and sixty. These different classes are called the reserve militia. There is also a permanent militia of a thousand men, in addition to the Royal North-West Mounted Police, and an active militia of forty-seven thousand men serving for three years and drilling from eight to sixteen days each year.

**220. The Canadian navy.**—The experience of the South African war proved the willingness of Canada to furnish land forces to fight the battles of the empire. Canadians are now planning to strengthen the empire on the seas. So rapidly are some foreign powers increasing the strength of their navies that British statesmen are growing anxious about the supremacy of our fleet. All the "British Dominions beyond the Seas" are considering how they can best add to the naval strength of the empire. In 1910 the

Canadian Parliament resolved to make a beginning in the establishment of a Canadian navy. Several cruisers are to be built and equipped, and a training school for officers and sailors is to be established. The details of the plan are not yet fully worked out, but it is expected that within a short time Canada will have a well-equipped navy, small but effective, and fully able to play its part in the defence of the empire.

Halifax on the Atlantic, and Esquimaux on the Pacific, strongly fortified harbours, were formerly maintained by the British government as naval stations. Their defences are now in the hands of the Canadian government.

**221. Schools and churches.**—Fortunately for Canada the progress of education and Christianity has been no less decided than the material growth. Although no striking change has taken place in the public school system since its establishment, yet its influence has been greatly widened. Under the British North America Act all matters relating to education are under the control of the provinces, so that, while the various systems in use may differ in some degree, all are excellent. Larger buildings, better equipment, and more capable teachers have greatly improved the public schools of Canada. The scope of higher education has been extended to include agriculture, medicine, science, music, dentistry, and other subjects. In 1911 there were eighteen universities in active operation.

The four older churches, the Roman Catholic, Anglican, Presbyterian, and Methodist, have shared in the general progress of the country, and beside them have sprung up two younger denominations, the Baptist and Congregational. The churches have played an important part in the building up of the newer parts of Canada. That there was little trouble in preserving order during the early life of the Canadian West was due in large part to the active missionary work of the various churches.

**222. Canadian literature.**—A record of Canada's progress would be incomplete without a reference to our literature. Although not far past the pioneer stage of her history, Canada possesses at least the beginnings of a literature, or

rather of two literatures, one French, the other English. Fortunately some of our ancestors, of both races, found time, even amid the anxieties of pioneer life, to write of their experiences, and though much that they wrote cannot be called literature, it has proved valuable material in the hands of modern writers.

Marc L'Escarbot, historian and poet of Port Royal, has given us in "*L'Histoire de la Nouvelle France*" and "*Les*



MRS. MOODIE

*Muses de la Nouvelle France*," a delightful glimpse of the life of Canada's first colony. Champlain, even in the busy years of exploration, Indian fighting, and colonizing, found time to write of his experiences under the title of "*Des Sauvages*." The most extensive writings of this early period are the Jesuit "*Relations*," a treasure-house of historical material gathered by zealous priests of the Jesuit order. The most familiar of these early historians is Pierre François Xavier de Charlevoix.

A long interval followed during which the voice of literature was silent. The fur trade, Indian wars, and the struggle between France and Britain, left little time for writing. Not until after the union of 1841 did French-Canadians again turn their attention to literature. To this period belong several historians, including François Xavier Garneau, Benjamin Sulte, and Abbé Casgrain. An historical romance by M. Philippe de Gaspé, entitled "*Les Anciens Canadiens*," presents an interesting sketch of early Quebec life. In the front rank of our poets stand Louis Fréchette, whose work has been crowned by the French Academy.

The stirring events of the early British period, while they interrupted literary effort, furnished rich material for later works of history, fiction, and verse. Among the more formal histories of the period are: "*The Conquest of Canada*," by



Major G. G. Warburton; "Lower Canada," 1791-1841, by Robert Christie; "The Loyalists," by Dr. Egerton Ryerson and Dr. William Canniff. Events of this period have also provided the plots of several interesting historical novels: "Les Bastonnais," by John Lesperance; "Le Chien d'Or," by William Kirby; "The Canadian Brothers," and "Wacousta," by Major John Richardson; "For King and Country," by Agnes Machar. The memory of Tecumseh is preserved in Charles Mair's well known drama of that name. Vivid pictures of pioneer life in Upper Canada have come down to us in Mrs. Moodie's "Roughing it in the Bush," and Mrs. Traill's "Backwoods of Canada."

In the more modern period, history has bulked largely. To Dr. Kingsford we owe a ten volume history of our country; while Professor Goldwin Smith, who died in 1910, has been spoken of as "the most conspicuous figure in Canadian literature." In local history the Maritime Provinces claim several writers of distinction: Haliburton, Murdock, Campbell, and Hannay.

Able as is his contribution to history, Judge Haliburton's reputation throughout the English-speaking world rests upon his book entitled "The Clockmaker; or The Sayings and Doings of Sam Slick of Slickville." This remarkable work of humour, equally popular in Canada, Great Britain and the United States, won for its distinguished author a degree from Oxford University and a seat in the British House of Commons.

In the recent progress of literature and science an important part has been played by the Royal Society of Canada. Founded by the Marquis of Lorne, it held its first meeting at Ottawa, in 1882. Its president, Sir William Dawson, at that time the distinguished head of McGill University, was the author of several works on science

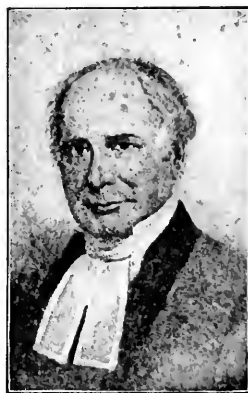


LOUIS FRÉCHETTE

which have become popular throughout the English-speaking world.

Canadian history furnishes a wealth of material for fiction. Out of the romantic incidents of the war between France and Britain, Charles G. D. Roberts has woven many attractive stories, such as "The Forge in the Forest," and "A Sister to Evangeline." In "The Seats of the Mighty," Sir Gilbert Parker has made real to us the life of Quebec during the era of the conquest. The hardships and dangers of the fur-trade of the North-West have become better known through Miss Agnes Laut's "Lords of the North," and "Heralds of Empire." Rocky Mountain miners and lumbermen are the heroes whom the pen of "Ralph Connor" (Charles W. Gordon) has made so fascinating to the reading public in his many novels of western life.

There are no books in modern Canadian literature more attractive than those which deal with our wild animals and their haunts. Such are Ernest Thompson Seton's "Wild



THOMAS CHANDLER  
HALIBURTON

Animals I have Known," and "Lives of the Hunted;" Charles G. D. Roberts' "Heart of the Ancient Wood," and "Kindred of the Wild;" and W. A. Fraser's "Mooswa."

The first Canadian poem of importance written in English was "Saul," a drama from the pen of Charles Heavysege, a Montreal journalist. To Charles Sangster, sometimes called the "Canadian Wordsworth," we owe several volumes of verse, inspired mainly by Canadian scenery and history. Between these older writers and the modern Canadian poets stand John Reade, Hunter Duvar, and Charles Mair. The

best known of our modern poets are Archibald Lampman, William Wilfred Campbell, Charles G. D. Roberts, Bliss Carman, Duncan Campbell Scott, Frederick George Scott, Dr. W. H. Drummond, Theodore Rand, Isabella Valancy

Crawford, Agnes Maule Machar, Jean Blewett, Ethelwyn Wetherald, and Pauline Johnson. Several of these have won an honourable place in the field of poetry, but their work has been done too recently to be judged as to its permanent value. Through much of the more recent verse there runs a marked patriotic strain. Loyalty to Canada and to the British Empire has inspired many of our shorter poems.

“Saxon and Gaul, Canadians, claim  
A part in the glory and pride, and aim  
Of the Empire that girdles the world.”

### SUMMARY

The population of the Dominion at the close of the nineteenth century was about five and a half millions. The most marked increase was manifest in Western Canada, the result of the building of a transcontinental railway. The development of the canal system kept pace with that of railways. The industrial growth after Confederation was rapid and general, as seen by the development of agriculture, lumbering, mining, the fisheries, and manufactures of various kinds. As in previous periods, the progress of education and Christianity kept pace with material advancement. Young as the Canadian nation is, it possesses at least the beginnings of a literature. A review of the literature of the four periods, the early French and later French, the early British and later British, reveals the names of many well known writers.

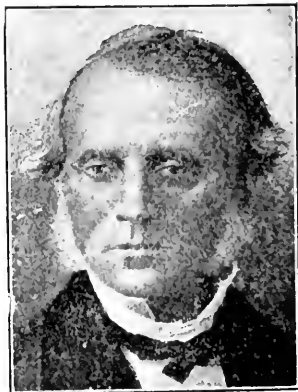
## CHAPTER XXVI

### ONTARIO SINCE CONFEDERATION

1867-19—

**223. The Makers of the province of Ontario.**—The British North America Act changed the name of Upper Canada to Ontario, and gave to Ontario, as to each of the other provinces, a local legislature and also representation in the House of Commons and in the Senate. Henceforth the history of Canada is not provincial, but national. It remains, therefore, to tell of the making of the province of Ontario, of its growth and prosperity and of the leaders in its political life. The story of confederation has already made us familiar with the careers of Sir John A. Macdonald, George Brown, and Alexander Mackenzie. Three others from Ontario who shared in promoting a larger national life

were Sir Alexander Campbell, Sir Francis Hincks, and Sir Alexander T. Galt.



JOHN SANDFIELD MACDONALD

An opponent of what he deemed a revolutionary scheme, John Sandfield Macdonald figured largely in the Confederation period. He was a member of the Union Parliament for many years. He entered the La Fontaine-Baldwin Cabinet in 1849, and for two years (1862-1864) was premier of the United Canadas. At confederation he became the first prime minister of Ontario and

held office for a parliamentary term. His ministry founded many of the public institutions of the province, such as the

Agricultural College, the Central Prison, and the institutions for the blind, and the deaf and dumb. Mr. Macdonald was a Liberal in politics, but allied himself with Sir John A. Macdonald after confederation.

Oliver Mowat entered Parliament in 1857, and was soon one of the leading Liberal statesmen. He was one of the strongest supporters of confederation. Till 1872 he was conspicuous in the Dominion Parliament. Then for nearly twenty-four years he was the distinguished Liberal premier of Ontario. He won many constitutional victories in his battles for provincial rights. The Rivers and Streams Bill of 1881, a measure passed by the Ontario Legislature, was disallowed by the federal government. The case was taken to the Privy Council, where it was decided that the province controlled her own waterways. In 1884 arose the Western Boundary Dispute between the Dominion and Ontario; the decision of the Privy Council established the present western line of the province. In 1888 it was decided by the Privy Council that the province owned all lands bought from Indians, and also that it had jurisdiction in the matter of liquor licenses. A further decision on the Provincial Assemblies question conceded to the provinces the power "to regulate their own procedure, and to enlarge or limit the privileges of members." By an imperial statute of 1889 the boundaries of Ontario were confirmed, and extended to James Bay. It was mainly through the energy and ability of Mr. Mowat that the interests of Ontario were thus promoted. He also greatly simplified and cheapened the course of the law, and improved the machinery of the courts. For his great services to his country Mr. Mowat was knighted. In 1896 he was ap-



SIR OLIVER MOWAT

pointed minister of justice in Sir Wilfrid Laurier's government, and retired with a splendid record in 1897 to become lieutenant-governor of Ontario, a position he held at the time of his death.

William McDougall was an energetic lawyer and journalist. From 1862, the time of his entry into John Sandfield Macdonald's administration, he strenuously urged such great measures as representation by population, confederation of all the provinces, and the acquirement of the North-West Territories by the Dominion. While in public life he saw all these passed, and when in 1870 the Hudson Bay Territory was purchased by the Dominion government, Mr. McDougall became the first governor of the newly acquired region.

As a lawyer, Edward Blake early won a name for eloquence and ability. His political career began when, at confederation, he entered the Ontario Legislature. Shortly afterwards, he rose to be leader of the Liberal party, and then, in 1871, premier of Ontario. A year later, he was called to the federal administration of Mr. Mackenzie, and after the latter's withdrawal, Mr. Blake became the opposition leader of the Commons. He retired from Dominion politics in 1892 to become an Irish Home Rule member in the British House of Commons. Mr. Blake long held the honoured position of chan-



EDWARD BLAKE

cellor of the University of Toronto.

Having distinguished himself as a successful pleader in many important cases, William Ralph Meredith was persuaded to enter the Ontario Legislature in 1872. Six years later he was chosen leader of the Conservative opposition, succeeding the late Sir M. C. Cameron. In 1894 he was appointed chief-justice of the Common Pleas division of

the High Court of Justice for Ontario, and was soon after knighted. Sir William succeeded Mr. Blake as chancellor of the University of Toronto, a position which he still holds.

Arthur S. Hardy entered the provincial Parliament in 1873, and after four years of service entered the Mowat administration. On the retirement of Mr. Mowat in 1896, Mr. Hardy succeeded him as premier. Many public and private bills of wide scope and of a practical business character marked his administration.

For eleven years, from 1872 to 1883, George W. Ross was a leading member of the House of Commons. Chosen minister of education in the Mowat cabinet, he held the same position under Mr. Hardy.

Mr. Ross did much to improve the public school system, and was also one of the factors in bringing about the federation of the University of Toronto and the affiliation of denominational colleges with that institution. In 1899 Mr. Ross became premier of Ontario, and held that office until 1905, when his government was defeated at the polls. Subsequently he was appointed to the Senate of Canada and was honoured with knighthood. Sir James Whitney, who



SIR JAMES WHITNEY

had been leader of the Conservative opposition since 1896, became premier on the defeat of the Ross government. Sir James, whose party still continues in power, has already to his credit many laws promoting the industrial, social, and educational advancement of the province.

**224. Material progress of Ontario.**—Under wise and efficient leadership, the story of Ontario since confederation is one of peace and prosperity. In that time its population has nearly doubled and is now more than two millions. The area of the province through the extension of her boundaries is now 222,000 square miles, of which New

Ontario contributes about 100,000 square miles. Yet this province, larger than either France or Germany, is cobwebbed with the steel of railway and trolley, with the wire of telegraph and telephone. The two railways, the Grand Trunk and the Canadian Pacific, have absorbed most of the minor lines. The main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, opened in 1885, has proved of great value to the settlers of New Ontario. Another great transcontinental highway, the Grand Trunk Pacific, is now under construction to proceed through the province's timbered northlands. From Port Arthur to Winnipeg runs the Canadian Northern. The Temiskaming and Northern is a government line under construction to impart new life to northern Ontario. The other principal railways under construction are the Algoma Central and the James Bay line. A canal of immense proportions has been opened at Sault Ste. Marie; the other canals have been deepened, so that ocean vessels may now traverse the Great Lakes to the heart of the continent.

Ontario's chief industry is agriculture; but her forest resources and her mineral wealth are almost inexhaustible. Most of her seventeen cities and one hundred and twenty towns are great manufacturing centres, and the products of her factories, farms, forests, and mines are justly prized by the sister provinces, the motherland and the United States. At the various great expositions held recently, educational exhibits from Ontario, her fruit and dairy products, her grain, live stock, minerals, and manufactures, have won many of the highest awards. And yet this banner province of the Dominion is in its infancy. There are still vast undeveloped resources which will furnish homes to millions who with brain, brawn, and heart seek to be worthy of their glorious heritage!

### SUMMARY

The administration of provincial affairs in Ontario has brought into prominence many able men, among them the following: John Sandfield Macdonald, Sir Oliver Mowat, William McDougall, Sir William Meredith, Edward Blake, Arthur S. Hardy, Sir George Ross, and Sir James Whitney. The population of Ontario has nearly doubled since Confederation; her boundaries have been widely extended. The material and intellectual progress of the province has been in keeping with that of the Dominion as a whole.



## CHAPTER XXVII

### GOVERNMENT

225. **The imperial government.**—The government of Canada is modelled, as far as possible, after that of Great Britain. To understand the Canadian system it is necessary to know something of the imperial. The constitution of Great Britain has been many centuries in the making. In early times the rule of the sovereign was absolute, the people having no voice in the government. Rulers like the early Stuarts strove to uphold the absolute power of the crown,



THE IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS AT WESTMINSTER

but in vain. The Magna Carta, the Petition of Right and the Bill of Rights tell of the growing power of the Parliament and of the increasing freedom of the people. It is

to long centuries of struggle and sacrifice on the part of the people that Great Britain owes its present constitution. The country is governed by a sovereign, but by a sovereign who rules in accordance with the will of the people.

Great Britain is a limited monarchy. The crown is hereditary in the House of Hanover, subject always to the will of Parliament. All acts of government are performed in the name of the sovereign, whether they be legislative, executive, or judicial.

In legislation—law making—the sovereign is at the head of a Parliament composed of two Houses, the Lords and the Commons. In the House of Lords sit archbishops, bishops, dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons. A seat in the Upper House is hereditary, except in the case of the elected Scottish and Irish peers and a few life peers. The House of Lords represents mainly the wealth and landed interests of the country. The House of Commons, a larger body representing the people of England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, is the most important part of the Parliament. Nearly all business originates in this House. When a bill passes the Commons it must be brought before the Lords, and if it receives their assent, it is then placed before the sovereign for his signature.

In his executive acts the sovereign is advised by an Executive Council, commonly called the Cabinet. The members of the Cabinet are chosen from the House of Lords and the House of Commons, mainly from the latter. As the king acts on the advice of the Cabinet, which must possess the confidence of the House of Commons, elected by the nation at large, it may be truly said that the people of Great Britain rule themselves. There is one member of the British Cabinet in whom the colonial governments are specially interested, namely, the colonial secretary. Through his hands pass the communications between the British and Canadian governments.

In various ways Great Britain, while avoiding interference in domestic or internal concerns, exercises control over colonial legislation which affects the interests of the Empire. The governor-general is appointed by the home

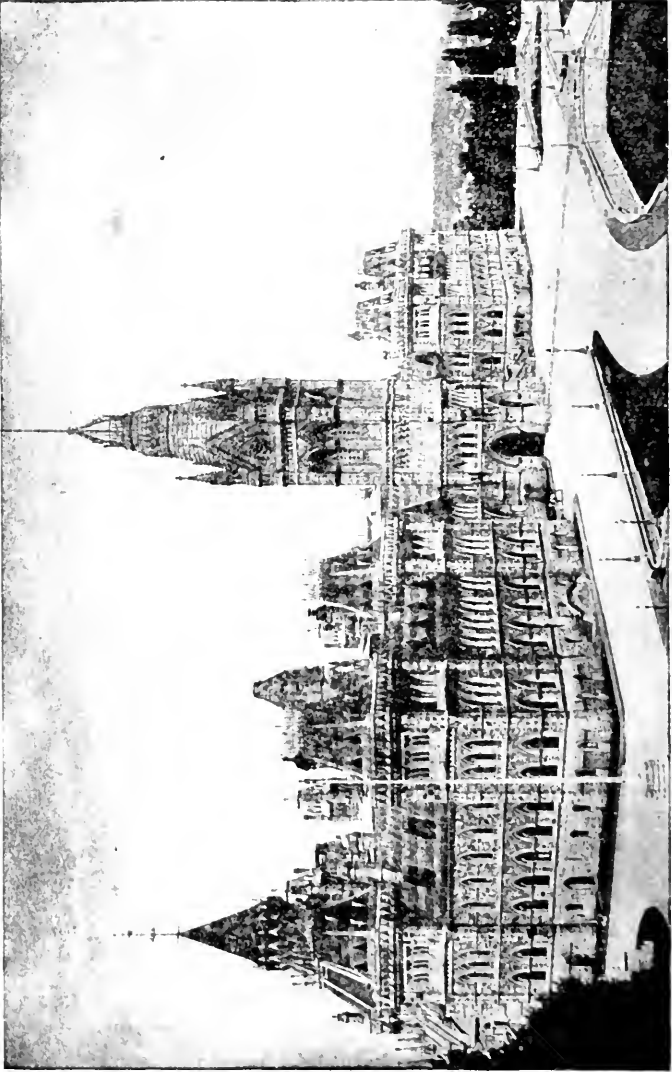
government; he is the representative of the crown in Canada and the medium of communication between the two countries. The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council of Great Britain is the highest court of appeal to Canadians. This committee does not hear criminal cases, but on all others submitted, reports its finding, which is decisive, to the king in Council. Provision is made for colonial representation on this Committee, Canada being at present represented by one member. To the home government belongs exclusively the right to make treaties, although of late years Canadians have been selected as commissioners to negotiate and frame such treaties when the interests of Canada are specially concerned. The home government also retains the power to veto any Canadian measure which, on investigation, proves to be injurious to the interests of the Empire as a whole.



KING GEORGE V

226. **The federal government.**—The present form of government of Canada is the outcome of a century's growth. When the country was taken over by Great Britain in 1763, the people had not been trained to govern themselves. A governor and a Council ruled until 1791, when the British authorities thought it safe to allow the people to elect an Assembly. For another half century the governor and his Council felt themselves to be independent of the people's representatives. Not, however, till 1841, at the close of a long struggle between the Council and the people, was the principle of responsibility to the Assembly finally conceded. The last step in the development of the constitution of Canada was taken in 1867, when the provinces of Canada were united and a federal government formed.

The British North America Act, 1867, gave form to the



DOMINION PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA

government of Canada. The framers of the Act saw that there were some matters of government that concerned the provinces alone, others that concerned the people of Canada as a whole. They aimed, therefore, at leaving each province free to manage its local affairs, and at the same time provided for a central government to deal with all matters affecting the interests of the whole body of Canadians. This central government is known as the Dominion or federal government.

One of the clauses in the British North America Act provides that the federal government shall deal with everything that is not assigned exclusively to the control of the provinces. Further, in order that there should be no doubt on certain points, a list of subjects was drawn up to which the exclusive authority of the federal government extends. This list is as follows:—

(1) The public debt and property; (2) trade and commerce; (3) the raising of money by any kind of taxation; (4) the borrowing of money; (5) the postal service; (6) the taking of the census; (7) military and naval matters; (8) the payment of the officials employed by the government; (9) light-houses; (10) navigation and shipping; (11) quarantine and marine hospitals; (12) fisheries; (13) ferries, except when entirely within a province; (14) currency and coinage; (15) banking and the issue of paper money; (16) savings banks; (17) weights and measures; (18) bills of exchange and promissory notes; (19) interest; (20) legal tender; (21) bankruptcy; (22) patents for inventions; (23) copyrights on books, pictures, etc.; (24) Indians and Indian lands; (25) naturalization of foreigners; (26) marriage and divorce; (27) the criminal law; (28) penitentiaries; (29) matters expressly stated in the Act as not assigned to the provinces.

As far as the conditions of a new country allowed, the Canadian constitution was modelled upon that of Great Britain. The governor-general representing the king, is at the head of a Parliament composed of two Houses, a Senate and a House of Commons.

The governor-general is appointed by the British government and his period of service is usually limited to six

years. As the representative of the king, he assembles, prorogues, and dissolves Parliament, but all these, and many other executive acts, he performs on the advice of his Cabinet. The governor-general, however, has a double responsibility, on the one hand, to the British government which he represents, and on the other to the Canadian Cabinet upon whose advice he is required to act. When a bill has passed through the two Houses of Parliament, it is submitted to him for his signature. If he refuses to sign, either the resignation or the dismissal of the Cabinet must follow; but if he considers that it will prove harmful to the Empire as a whole, or interferes with treaties entered into between the home government and foreign nations, or that it is beyond the powers of Parliament to pass the bill, he may reserve it for the consideration of the Imperial government. This rarely occurs. If, within two years, the king in Council does not give his assent, the bill does not become law. All bills are assented to by the governor-general in the name of the King.

The Cabinet or Executive Council, also known as the government, ministry, or administration, is chosen from the party having the majority in the House of Commons. The leader of the Cabinet is called the premier, prime minister or first minister. He may be a member either of the Senate or the House of Commons, although usually he has a seat in the latter. The premier, who is chosen by the governor-general from the party which has the confidence of the majority in the House of Commons, or which, in all probability, will have control after the next general election, is entrusted with the duty of forming the Cabinet. As soon as he accepts this responsibility, he proceeds to choose, from the House of Commons and the Senate, the men whom he wishes to associate with himself in the government of the country. The names, when decided upon, are submitted to the governor-general, and if approved by him, the new ministers take the oath of office, and assume charge of the departments given them. It is not necessary that Cabinet ministers taking office should have a seat in Parliament, but they cannot hold office for any long period without

either being appointed to the Senate or elected to the House of Commons. On taking office, members of the Cabinet, who are members of the House of Commons, must at once go back to their constituencies for re-election. If their course in accepting an office to which a special salary is attached is approved by the electors, they will be returned; if not, they will be defeated and thus compelled to resign from the Cabinet.

The prime minister and his Cabinet really rule the country. They decide upon what policy shall be adopted; they advise and are responsible for every official act of the governor-general; they decide upon and arrange for all important legislation; they prepare and submit the supply bills; they administer every department of the government and spend the money voted by Parliament; they make all appointments to the public service. The only check upon the power of the Cabinet is the House of Commons. As soon as the Cabinet loses the confidence of the Commons, the premier must hand his resignation to the governor-general. The resignation of the premier, when accepted, at once dissolves the Cabinet.

When a decision is reached by the Cabinet on any matter connected with the government of the country, it is written out in a formal way and duly signed by the governor-general. This is known as an order-in-council. All such orders-in-council must, however, be ratified at the next session of the House of Commons.

The present Cabinet of the Dominion consists of fifteen members, although the number may be either more or less if Parliament so decides. Each member of the Cabinet has certain administrative duties to perform and presides over a department as follows: *President of the Council*, who has no departmental duties, but who presides over the meetings of the Cabinet; *Minister of Justice and Attorney-General of Canada*, who has charge of the administration of justice, and has the superintendence of the penitentiaries of the Dominion; *Minister of Finance and Receiver-General*, who has charge of all matters relating to the finances of the Dominion; *Minister of Trade and Commerce*, who has

charge of all matters affecting the trade and commerce of the Dominion; *Minister of Agriculture*, who has charge of agriculture, public health, the quarantining of ships, the registration of copyrights and trade-marks and the taking of the census; *Minister of Marine and Fisheries*, who deals with matters connected with navigation and fishing, including harbours, lighthouses, the examination of masters and mates, and who has also charge of the naval affairs of the Dominion; *Minister of Militia and Defence*, who has charge of military affairs, including armouries, fortifications, schools of military instruction and the Military College at Kingston; *Minister of the Interior and Superintendent-General of Indian Affairs*, who has charge of the Dominion lands, the government of the North-West Territories, the Indians and all matters affecting immigration; *Minister of Public Works*, who has charge of all public works carried on by the Dominion with the exception of railways and canals; *Minister of Railways and Canals*, who has charge of all Dominion railways and canals, including the management of the Intercolonial Railway; *Minister of Customs*, who has charge of the collection of customs duties; *Minister of Inland Revenue*, who has charge of the collection of excise duties and the inspection of weights and measures; *Minister of Labour*, who looks after all matters affecting the interests of labour in the Dominion; *Postmaster-general*, who has the management of the post-office, and the postal service; *Secretary of State*, who conducts all the official correspondence of the Dominion with the provinces, the home government, and with foreign nations generally, affixes the great seal of the Dominion to documents, and superintends the government printing and the purchase of stationery. In addition to the fifteen ministers mentioned, there is also the *Solicitor-general*, whose duty it is to give legal advice to the government. The solicitor-general is not a member of the Cabinet.

Although the senate corresponds to the House of Lords in the British Parliament, it does not, like the latter, represent any special class. It was thought wise, however, to have a second House to revise the legislation of the Commons. For some years prior to 1867 the members of the



Legislative Council, which corresponded to the present Senate, had been elected directly by the people. It was felt, however, that if the Senate was to act as a check upon the Commons, its members should not be chosen in the same way as the Commons. The senators are, therefore, appointed for life by the governor-general, who always, in such appointments, acts upon the advice of his Cabinet. When the Dominion was formed the Senate consisted of seventy-two members, twenty-four from Ontario, twenty-four from Quebec, and twenty-four from the Maritime Provinces. This number, owing to the admission or creation of new provinces, has increased, until now the membership of the Senate is eighty-seven. Senators must be British subjects of at least thirty years of age, must have property worth at least four thousand dollars, and must reside in the province for which they are appointed, or district, if in Quebec. They hold their positions for life, unless their seats are forfeited by absence from Parliament for two successive sessions, by change of residence to another province (or district), by loss of property or bankruptcy, by crime, or treason, or by resignation. The Speaker of the Senate, who presides over its meetings, is appointed by the governor-general in Council for the parliamentary term. He may vote on any question, but in case of a tie he must decide in the affirmative. The Senate has equal power with the House of Commons, except where bills relating to money are concerned. These cannot originate or be altered in the Senate, but they may be rejected as a whole.

The most important part of the Dominion government is the House of Commons, a body at present consisting of two hundred and twenty-one members, elected by the people. Each province is represented according to its population. The representation of Quebec is fixed at sixty-five members. The representation of each of the other provinces bears the same relation to sixty-five as its population bears to that of Quebec. Every tenth year a census of the Dominion is taken, after which the representation of the provinces in the House of Commons is readjusted by Parliament itself to suit the changes in population. It thus happens that the

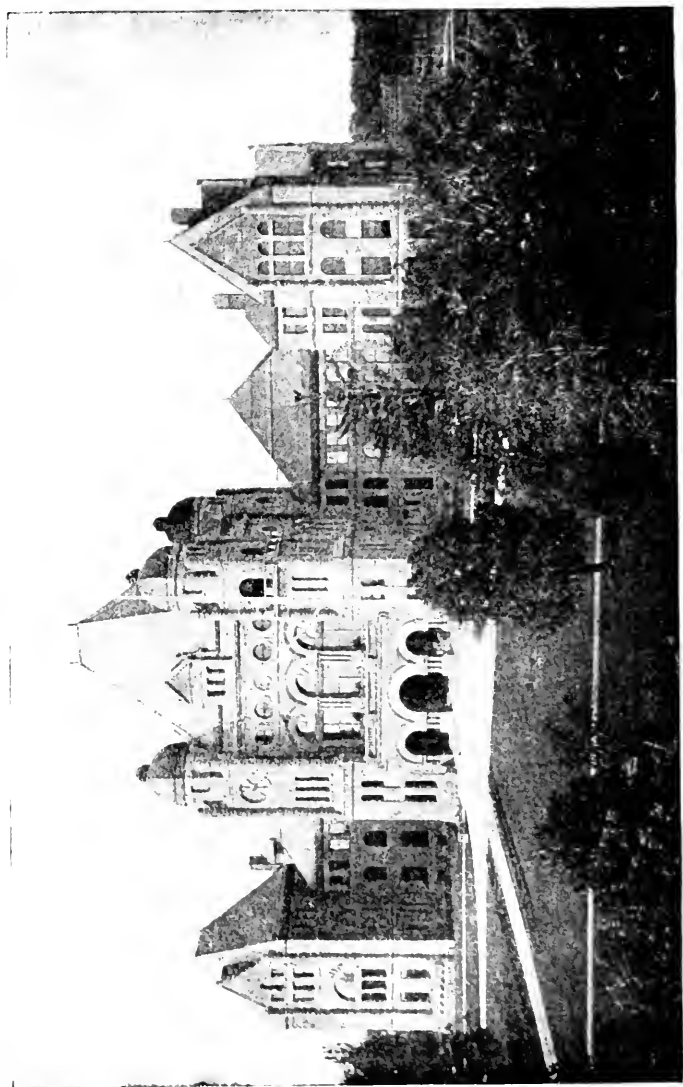
representation of all the provinces except Quebec may change with each census; for instance, Prince Edward Island at the time of its admission to the Dominion was entitled to six members, but now it has only four. At present the representation is as follows: eighty-six for Ontario, sixty-five for Quebec, thirteen for New Brunswick, eighteen for Nova Scotia, four for Prince Edward Island, ten for Manitoba, ten for Saskatchewan, seven for Alberta, seven for British Columbia, and one for the Yukon Territory. Members of the House of Commons are elected for five years, and hold their seats for that period unless Parliament is sooner dissolved. They require no property qualifications, but they must be British subjects of at least twenty-one years of age. A member's seat is forfeited by bankruptcy, insanity, or felony. Every precaution is taken to keep the House of Commons free from corruption. If a member accepts any office of profit under the government, even that of a member of the Cabinet, and so comes under its influence, his seat at once becomes vacant. All disputes arising over elections are settled in the courts by judges, who are free from political influence.

For the purpose of electing members to the House of Commons, the Dominion is divided by Parliament into electoral divisions, commonly known as "constituencies." These constituencies are so arranged that they may contain, as nearly as practicable, an equal number of electors or persons entitled to vote. Each constituency generally elects one member; but in the case of some of the larger cities, no division is made, the voters as a whole electing as many members as the constituency is entitled to return.

A new House of Commons must be elected at least once in every five years, although it is seldom that the House is not dissolved before the expiration of that period. On the advice of his Cabinet, the governor-general dissolves Parliament, and issues a proclamation ordering the writs for a general election to the House of Commons. The proclamation also fixes the date for the nomination of candidates, and the election of members, one week being allowed between nomination and election. These writs are at once

issued and sent to a special officer in each constituency, known as the "returning officer," who has charge of all matters in connection with the election. Any twenty-five electors may nominate a candidate by signing a legal form of nomination and by depositing \$200 with the returning officer,—such deposit to be forfeited to the crown should the candidate fail to receive half as many votes as the successful candidate. If only one candidate is nominated, the returning officer declares him duly elected by acclamation. The votes are polled by ballot on one day throughout the Dominion, except in a few larger, sparsely settled districts such as Gaspé in Quebec, and Cariboo in British Columbia. In these remote sections of the country the date of the election is fixed by the returning officer. The franchise in Dominion elections is the same as in provincial, the voters' lists prepared by the provinces being used. Except in Quebec, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, where a small property qualification is required, any British subject of the male sex, not disqualified by law, who is over twenty-one years of age and who has resided in Canada for at least one year prior to the election and in the electoral division three months, is entitled to vote. Should a vacancy occur in the House of Commons, owing to the death or disqualification of a member, the governor-general in Council authorizes the holding of a bye-election for that constituency.

The House of Commons must assemble at least once a year for the conduct of public business. On the first day of a new Parliament a Speaker is elected, usually from the party in power, to preside over all the sessions of that Parliament. The Speaker is allowed to vote only when there is a tie. When the House goes into Committee of the Whole, that is, when a free discussion without any great formality is desired, the Speaker's chair is occupied by the Deputy-Speaker, who is elected at the same time and in the same manner as the Speaker. The clerk and his assistants, appointed by the governor-general in Council, record the proceedings of the House and translate all public documents. The sergeant-at-arms has general oversight of messengers and pages, of the mace and furniture, and is the constable of the House.



PROVINCIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, TORONTO

In order to transact public business there must be a quorum of nineteen members and the Speaker. Both languages, French and English, must be used in all laws and in the journals of the Houses; either language may be used in debate.

When a bill has been passed by the House of Commons, it is sent on to the Senate. If it is passed by the Senate, it then goes to the governor-general for his approval. When signed by the governor-general the bill becomes law. In case amendments are made by the Senate, the bill is sent back to the Commons, who may either accept or reject these. If the House of Commons refuses to accept the amendments, and the Senate persists in retaining them, the bill is dropped. Rarely, however, do the two Houses fail to reach an agreement.

In all matters relating to taxation and the payment of money, the House of Commons is supreme. Bills of this nature must originate in the Commons, and must have been first recommended by message from the governor-general, the government assuming responsibility therefor. Such bills may not be amended in the Senate, although they may of course be rejected in their entirety.

227. **The provincial government.**—As the system of local government is practically the same in all the provinces, the government of Ontario may be taken as typical. The plan of government is modelled on that of the Dominion. At the head of the government of the province stands the lieutenant-governor, who is appointed for five years by the governor-general in Council. His duties are similar to those of the governor-general. He chooses the premier from the party having the majority in the Legislative Assembly, and the premier, with his approval, selects the members of the Cabinet. Acting on the advice of his Cabinet or Executive Council, he appoints officials and gives assent to legislative measures.

The Ontario Cabinet at present includes the Premier, who is *President of the Council*, the Attorney-general, the Minister of Education, the Minister of Lands, Forests and Mines, the Minister of Public Works, the Minister of Agriculture, the Provincial Treasurer, the Provincial Secretary, and three

Ministers without portfolio, that is, without the responsibility of administering a department of the public service. The duties of the *Attorney-general* are to give legal advice to the government, and to see that the laws are properly enforced. The *Minister of Education* has charge of the educational institutions of the province, including the public libraries, and schools for the blind, and the deaf and dumb. The *Minister of Lands, Forests and Mines* has control over the public lands, the forests, and the mines of the province. Under the control of the *Minister of Public Works* are the erection of all buildings required for public purposes, and the improvements on the public roads. He also has charge of the fisheries and game within the province. The *Minister of Agriculture* looks after the farming interests of the province, including the Agricultural and Veterinary Colleges. The *Provincial Treasurer* manages the finances of the province, while the *Provincial Secretary*, in addition to being the official correspondent of the government, administers the laws relating to liquor licenses and the public health. The Secretary is also *Registrar-general*, and as such, has charge of the registration of births, marriages, and deaths that take place in the province. In the present government he also has charge of asylums and prisons.

The Ontario Legislature has one hundred and six members. A member of the Provincial Parliament (M.P.P.) or Legislative Assembly (M.L.A.) must be a British subject of at least twenty-one years of age. In Ontario, members are elected for four years by a manhood suffrage ballot; in some of the other provinces the term is five years. The Speaker, one of the members of the Legislature, is chosen by vote on the first day of the new Parliament, and usually from the party in the majority in the House. The procedure in the Legislative Assembly is like that in the House of Commons.

In Nova Scotia and in Quebec, there is, in addition to the Legislative Assembly, a Legislative Council, the members of which are appointed for life by the lieutenant-governor in Council. They must be British subjects and have a property qualification. In Prince Edward Island the

Legislative Council is united with the Assembly, each of the fifteen constituencies electing a councillor and a member of the Assembly.

Under the British North America Act the provinces are limited in legislation to a definite list of subjects specially provided for in the Act. This list is as follows :

(1) The amendment of the constitution of the province, except in regard to the office of lieutenant-governor; (2) direct taxation; (3) the borrowing of money on the sole credit of the province; (4) the civil service of the province; (5) the public lands, belonging to the province; (6) the prisons and reformatories of the province; (7) hospitals, asylums, and charitable institutions; (8) municipal institutions; (9) licenses, such as those of taverns, shops, and auctioneers; (10) local works and undertakings, except lines of steamships, railways, canals, telegraph, and other works and undertakings extending outside the province, and such works which, although wholly inside the province, are declared by the Dominion parliament to be for the general advantage of Canada, or of two or more of the provinces; (11) the incorporation of companies for business in the province; (12) the solemnization of marriage in the province; (13) property and civil rights in the province; (14) the administration of justice in the province; (15) punishment by fine and imprisonment, in case any provincial law is broken; (16) generally all matters of a merely local or private nature in the province. By a further provision in the British North America Act, the Legislature of each province may exclusively make laws relating to education within the province. There are also certain subjects, such as agriculture and immigration, over which both the Dominion and the provincial governments have jurisdiction. In case, however, the law passed by the province does not agree with that passed by the Dominion, the latter governs.

The Dominion government has control over the provincial governments by means of the power of "disallowance." Any law passed by the provincial government may be disallowed by the Dominion government within one year after the receipt of an official copy of the Act. This power,

however, is very seldom exercised, except when the Act is one that interferes with the general welfare of Canada or the Empire.

228. **The municipal government.**—For the purpose of local or municipal government, Ontario is divided into municipalities, formed in accordance with laws passed by the provincial legislature. Municipalities are known as cities, towns, villages, townships, and counties. When fifteen thousand or more people are living closely together in one district, the municipality is known as a *city*. Smaller divisions containing more than two thousand people are known as *towns*. Still smaller divisions containing at least seven hundred and fifty people are known as *villages*. *Townships* are rural divisions including more or less territory, while *counties* are a number of townships grouped for purposes of government

The governing body in cities, known as the *council*, consists of a *mayor* and of three *aldermen* for each ward into which the city is divided, but the number may by by-law be reduced to two. In towns the council is composed of a *mayor* and of three *councillors* for each ward where there are less than five wards, and two councillors for each ward where the number is more than five, but the number may be reduced to two in all cases if the people so desire. In villages and townships the council is made up of a *reeve* and four *councillors*. The county council is made up of representatives of the towns, villages, and townships included in the county. Every town, not separated from the county for municipal purposes, and every village and township, is represented by the presiding officer of its own council, and in addition, by other representatives in accordance with the number of voters. The county council is presided over by the *warden*, who is elected by the council from among its own members.

If a city has a population of more than one hundred thousand, it must have a *Board of Control*, which consists of a mayor, and of four *controllers* chosen from among the aldermen by a vote of the whole council. This Board has special duties to perform and is really the executive committee of the council. Cities of more than forty-five thousand may



also, by vote of the people, have a Board of Control. By special Act of the provincial Legislature the city of Toronto has a Board of Control, consisting of the mayor and of four controllers elected by the whole body of the voters.

Members of any council, whether city, town, village, township or county, must be British subjects of at least twenty-one years of age and of the male sex. They must also possess certain property qualifications, which vary according as they are members of a city, town, village, or township council. Voters within the municipality must also be British subjects of at least twenty-one years of age, and must have certain qualifications, either as owners or tenants of property, or by income. Provision is made in rural



CITY HALL, TORONTO

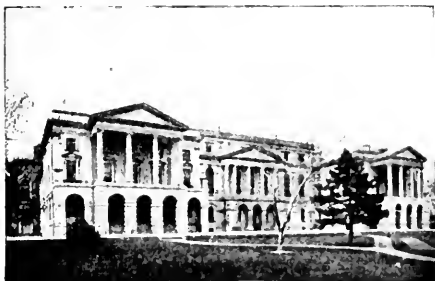
municipalities for farmers' sons who reside with their parents, but who do not possess property of their own.

Municipal elections are held annually, and are conducted in much the same way as those of the higher legislative bodies. Nominations of candidates for election take place on the last Monday in December, and the voting on the first Monday in January. The voting is by ballot. The first meeting of the new council is held one week after the election, on the second Monday in January. In Toronto the municipal elections are held on New Year's Day, except when that day falls on Sunday, in which case the voting takes place on the day following. The county council

meets for the first time in each year on the fourth Tuesday in January.

The officers of a municipal council are the *clerk*, who has charge of the records and accounts; the *treasurer*, who receives and pays out the moneys belonging to the municipality; the *assessor*, who values the property subject to taxation; the *collector*, who collects the taxes, and the *auditor*, who examines into the correctness of the accounts of all the officials. In towns and cities, there is, of course, a more elaborate organization, which varies with their size and needs.

The city, town, village, and township councils deal with matters that particularly concern the local interests within



OSGOODE HALL, TORONTO

their own district, such as the making of roads and sidewalks, water-supply and drainage, protection of property, etc. The county council is concerned more particularly with those matters that affect more than one municipality, or the county as a

whole, such as bridges between municipalities, roads running through the county, grants to education, the administration of justice, etc. *The Railway and Municipal Board*, a body of three members appointed by the lieutenant-governor in Council, has general control over the municipal affairs of the province. All disputes between the municipalities are referred to the Board for final settlement.

**229. The Courts of Law.**—The laws made by the Dominion Parliament, the provincial Legislature, and the municipal council are enforced by the courts of law. The province controls the constitution, maintenance, and organization of the provincial courts, although the judges are appointed by the Dominion government. Justices of the peace and other magistrates are appointed by the pro-

vincial government. The courts of law in Ontario include *Division Courts* for the collection of small debts; *County and District Courts* for more important cases before county judges; the *High Court of Justice* for the trial of cases of all kinds, whether civil or criminal, and the *Court of Appeals* for the consideration of appeals against the decision of the High Court of Justice. There are also *Surrogate Courts* to decide in cases of wills and inheritances; *Courts of Revision* for voters' lists and assessment rolls; and courts for the trial of minor criminal cases before justices of the peace or magistrates. The chief executive of the law is the *sheriff*. One is appointed for each county or district by the lieutenant-governor in Council. His duties include the execution of court decrees, the summoning of juries, and the supervision of jails and jailers.

The highest court in Canada, and one to which appeals may be taken from the decisions of the Ontario courts, is the *Supreme Court*, the members of which, six in number, are appointed for life by the governor-general in Council. Beyond this tribunal is the *Judicial Committee of the Privy Council*, which sits in London and is the highest court of appeal to Canadians. There is also in Canada the *Exchequer Court*, which consists of one judge who decides cases in which crown revenues or property are concerned, or in cases which injury is received by any one while engaged on Dominion public works.

**230. Education in Ontario.**—The educational affairs of the province are controlled by the Department of Education, at the head of which is the Minister of Education, who is a member of the provincial Cabinet. There is a deputy-minister, and a Superintendent of Education. Under the direction of the responsible minister, the Superintendent of Education has general supervision over the educational institutions of the provincial system. There is also an Advisory Council of Education, a representative body, which advises the minister on such matters as he may submit to it for consideration.

The public schools of the province are controlled by Boards of Trustees, consisting, in the rural sections, of three members,

and in cities and towns of two members for each ward into which the city or town is divided. In an incorporated village, not divided into wards, the number of trustees is six.

In the rural sections trustees are elected at a meeting of the ratepayers held every year on the last Wednesday in



COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE, HAMILTON

December. If at the first election no more than three are nominated, they are declared elected. If more than three are nominated, a vote of the meeting is taken, but any two ratepayers may demand a poll, which is at once taken by open vote under the supervision of the duly appointed secretary of the meet-

ing. The candidate receiving the highest number of votes holds office for three years, the next highest for two years, and the next for one year. Subsequently each trustee holds office for three years, so that it is necessary to elect only one trustee at each annual meeting, unless vacancies should occur through death or resignation. Similarly, in cities and towns each trustee, after the first election, holds office for two years, only one trustee being elected each year. In cities and towns, also, the elections are usually held at the same time and in the same way as the municipal elections. School trustees must be British subjects of at least twenty-one years of age and must be resident ratepayers of the district.

Under the British North America Act provision is made for separate schools for Roman Catholics. The control of separate schools is similar to that of the public schools, except that trustees need not be assessed either as owners or tenants of property within the district.

The Department of Education exercises supervision over

the public and separate schools through inspectors, who are appointed by the County Councils; by the Board of Trustees in a city or town, if the latter is separated from the county for municipal purposes; or in the case of the inspectors of the district and separate schools, by the Minister of Education.

Secondary education in the province is provided by the continuation schools, high schools, collegiate institutes, and industrial and technical schools. The



NORMAL SCHOOL, LONDON

continuation schools may be under the management of special boards though it is usually in the hands of the public or separate school boards; but the high schools, collegiate institutes, and industrial and technical schools are managed by special Boards of Trustees. With the approval of the minister, in municipalities under the jurisdiction of county councils, high school districts may be established by these bodies, and in cities and separated towns by their municipal councils. In a high school district there are at least six trustees, usually three being appointed by the municipal council and three by the county council, one representative appointed by each body retiring each year. In cities and separated towns there are six trustees appointed by the municipal council, two retiring each year. An additional member may be appointed on the high school board by the public school board, and where there is a separate school one member by its board also. In certain cases, however, all the schools in a city, town, or incorporated village, may be placed under the management of a single body known as the Board of Education, the members of which are elected at the same time and in the same manner

as the municipal councils; it consists of the high and public school trustees united into one board. The number of members varies according to the size of the municipality. All the secondary schools are supervised by inspectors who are officials of the Department of Education.



UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, TORONTO

Higher education in Ontario is provided under provincial control by the University of Toronto. The university is supported by the province, and is under the management of a Board of Governors appointed by the lieutenant-governor in Council. In

addition to the provincial university, there are other chartered universities: Queen's University at Kingston, Ottawa University at Ottawa, McMaster University at Toronto, and the Western University at London.

The Ontario educational system provides for the training of teachers. For this purpose Normal Schools are in operation at Toronto, Ottawa, London, Hamilton, Peterborough, Stratford, and North Bay. Further provision is made for more advanced work for teachers in connection with the faculties of education in the University of Toronto and Queen's University. For the training of teachers of a lower grade, Model Schools are established in certain districts of the province.

**231. Revenue and taxation.**—A study of British history teaches us that in the long struggle of the people for freedom from the absolute rule of kings, the most important issue was the control of public money. It was not until Parliament made good its claim to the sole right to raise and spend the nation's money that it became all powerful in the state. So, too, throughout the course of Canadian history, it was the question of revenue control which gave rise to the

bitterest political strife. Now the power of taxation rests entirely with the Dominion and Provincial Parliaments, and with the municipal councils and Boards of Trustees, or other bodies to whom the power is delegated by the provincial Parliament.

The Dominion government secures its revenue by means of indirect taxation, such as customs and excise duties, postage stamps, tolls on bridges and canals, etc. The provincial government relies for its revenue on a subsidy paid by the Dominion government, based on the population of the province, on the money accruing from the public lands, mines and other natural resources of the province, and on indirect taxation in connection with such matters as come within the scope of the provincial power. The municipal councils raise their revenue by means of direct taxation; the council determines the amount of money needed to meet the expenditure of the year, estimates the value of the property in the district, and collects from each property owner his fair share of the amount required. The public and separate schools are supported by grants from the provincial government, and by direct taxation on the property in the district.

**232. Conclusion.**—We have reviewed four systems of government—the imperial, federal, provincial, and municipal. In each of these the most powerful factor is the body representing the people. Whether a government is good or bad depends upon the character of the men whom the citizens choose to represent them in Parliament or Council. How important, then, that the people choose wisely! Seeing that our government has been built up through great sacrifice, it is our duty as loyal citizens to preserve it unharmed for those who come after.





## APPENDIX

### LIST OF IMPORTANT DATES

- 986 Greenland colonized by Eric the Red.  
1000 Lief Ericson discovers Vineland.  
1492 Christopher Columbus discovers America.  
1497 John Cabot reaches mainland of America.  
1498 Sebastian Cabot explores the coast from Nova Scotia to Cape Hatteras.  
1500 Cortereal visits Labrador and Newfoundland.  
1524 Verrazano explores the coast from Carolina to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.  
1534 Cartier enters Chaleur Bay.  
1535 Cartier discovers the St. Lawrence River.  
1542 Roberval winters in Canada.  
1549 Roberval again leads an expedition to Canada.  
1576 Martin Frobisher lands on the coast of Labrador.  
1599 Pontgravé attempts to establish a settlement at Tadoussac.  
1603 De Monts, Pontgravé and Champlain sail up the St. Lawrence.  
1604 De Monts, Champlain and Poutrincourt land in Acadia.  
1605 De Monts founds Port Royal.  
1608 Champlain founds Quebec.  
1609 Champlain takes part in the Indian wars.  
1610 Henry Hudson discovers Hudson Bay.  
1611 The Jesuits come to Acadia.  
1612 Champlain appointed lieutenant-governor of Canada.  
1613 Champlain ascends the Ottawa River.  
1615 The Récollets come to Canada.  
Le Caron visits the Huron country.  
1621 The king of England grants Nova Scotia to Sir William Alexander.  
1625 Lalemant and Brébeuf land at Quebec.  
1627 The Company of One Hundred Associates is formed.  
1629 Kirke captures Quebec.  
1632 The treaty of St. Germain restores Canada to France  
Le Jeune begins "The Relations of the Jesuits."  
1635 Champlain dies at Quebec.  
1642 Maisonneuve, with Jeanne Mance and Madame de la Peltrie, founds Montreal.  
1644 Maisonneuve defeats the Iroquois at Montreal.  
1645 Charnisay captures Fort La Tour.  
1646 Father Jogues is killed by the Indians.

- 1647 A local council is formed to manage the affairs of Canada.  
1648 Father Daniel is killed by the Iroquois.  
1649 Fathers Lalemant and Brébeuf are killed by the Iroquois.  
1653 The Iroquois conclude a peace with the French.  
1659 Bishop Laval arrives at Quebec.  
1660 Dollard defends the Long Sault against the Iroquois.  
1663 The "Conseil Souverain" is created.  
1665 Talon arrives in Canada.  
1666 De Tracy attempts to subdue the Iroquois.  
1667 The treaty of Breda is signed.  
1670 Radisson first visits Hudson Bay.  
The Hudson's Bay Company is formed.  
1672 Father Albanel reaches Hudson Bay.  
Frontenac is appointed governor of Canada.  
1673 Marquette and Joliet discover the Mississippi.  
1675 Duchesneau arrives in Canada as Intendant.  
1679 La Salle sets out on his expedition.  
1681 The Northern Company is chartered.  
1682 La Salle reaches the mouth of the Mississippi.  
1684 La Barre makes an unsuccessful attack on the Iroquois.  
1686 De Troyes captures the English forts on Hudson Bay.  
La Salle is murdered.  
Denonville subdues the Iroquois.  
1688 The "Rat" kills the proposed peace with the Iroquois.  
1689 The Iroquois massacre the inhabitants of Lachine.  
Frontenac returns to Canada.  
1690 The French and Indians massacre the inhabitants of Schenectady.  
Sir William Phips captures Port Royal.  
Frontenac repulses Sir William Phips at Quebec.  
1691 Kellsey explores the interior west of Hudson Bay.  
1692 M<sup>lle</sup> Madeleine de Verchères defends her home against the Iroquois.  
1696 Frontenac attacks the Onondagas.  
D'Iberville subdues Newfoundland.  
1697 D'Iberville is victorious on Hudson Bay.  
The treaty of Ryswick is signed.  
1698 Frontenac dies at Quebec.  
1702 War breaks out again between the French and the English.  
1708 Laval dies at Quebec.  
1713 The treaty of Utrecht is signed. Acadia is handed over to the British.  
1726 Louisburg and Niagara are built.  
1731 La Vérendrye and his sons begin their explorations.  
1744 War again breaks out between France and Great Britain.  
1745 Pepperell and Warren capture Louisburg.  
1748 The treaty of Aix-la Chapelle is signed.  
Bigot arrives in Canada as Intendant.

- 1749 Halifax is founded by Cornwallis.  
Bienville makes an expedition into the Ohio valley.
- 1752 The first newspaper in Nova Scotia, the *Halifax Gazette* is published.
- 1754 Fort Duquesne is built.  
Hendry visits the Blackfeet.
- 1755 Braddock is defeated at Fort Duquesne.  
Fort Beauséjour is captured.  
The Acadians are deported from Nova Scotia.  
Johnson defeats Dieskau at Lake George.
- 1756 Montcalm arrives at Quebec.  
Montcalm captures Oswego.
- 1757 Loudon fails in an attack on Louisburg.  
Montcalm captures Fort William Henry.
- 1758 Montcalm defeats Abercrombie at Ticonderoga.  
Amherst, with Wolfe and Boscawen, captures Louisburg.  
Forbes captures Fort Duquesne.  
The first Legislature of Nova Scotia meets
- 1759 Ticonderoga, Crown Point and Niagara surrender to the British.  
Wolfe and Saunders arrive before Quebec.  
Wolfe defeats Montcalm at the battle of the Plains of Abraham.  
Wolfe and Montcalm are killed.  
Quebec surrenders to the British.
- 1760 Lévis defeats Murray at the battle of Ste. Foye.  
Vaudreuil surrenders Canada to Amherst.
- 1763 The treaty of Paris hands over Canada to Great Britain.  
Pontiac conspires against British rule.  
The Province of Quebec is created.  
Murray becomes governor-general of Quebec.  
The boundaries of Nova Scotia are extended.
- 1764 The first newspaper in Quebec, the *Quebec Gazette*, is published.
- 1768 Sir Guy Carleton arrives at Quebec as governor-general.
- 1770 The Island of St. John (Prince Edward Island) becomes a separate province.
- 1771 Hearne discovers the Coppermine River.
- 1774 The Quebec Act comes into force.  
Cumberland House is built.
- 1775 The American Revolution breaks out.  
Henry begins his explorations in the West.  
Montgomery and Arnold invade Quebec.
- 1776 Carleton defeats Montgomery and Arnold before the city of Quebec.
- 1777 Carleton is superseded in the military command by Burgoyne.
- 1778 Haldimand arrives at Quebec as governor-general.  
The *Montreal Gazette* is published.  
Cook explores the Pacific coast.  
Peter Pond explores the Athabaska.

- 1783 The second treaty of Paris is signed. Quebec loses part of its territory.  
The United Empire Loyalists begin to arrive in the British provinces.  
Parrrtown (St. John) is founded by the Loyalists.  
The North-West Company is formed.
- 1784 New Brunswick becomes a separate province.
- 1786 Carleton (Lord Dorchester) again becomes governor-general.  
The Mohawks, on the Grand River, build the first church in Upper Canada.
- 1788 The "Hungry Year" causes great suffering.  
King's College, Nova Scotia, is founded.  
Fort Chipewyan is built.
- 1789 Mackenzie reaches the Arctic Ocean.
- 1791 The Constitutional Act divides Quebec into Upper and Lower Canada.
- 1792 Simcoe becomes lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada.  
The first Legislature of Upper Canada meets at Newark.  
The first Legislature of Lower Canada meets at Quebec.  
Vancouver explores the coast of British Columbia.
- 1793 York (Toronto) is founded.  
The "Baldoon" settlement is begun.  
The first newspaper in Upper Canada, the *Upper Canada Gazette*, is founded.  
Slavery is abolished in Upper Canada.  
Mackenzie reaches the Pacific overland from Canada.
- 1795 The "Nootka Affair" between Great Britain and Russia is settled.  
The XY Company is formed.
- 1796 The Upper Canada Parliament is removed to York.
- 1798 Thompson explores the interior west of Hudson Bay.
- 1803 Talbot begins his settlement at Port Talbot.  
Selkirk founds a colony in Prince Edward Island.
- 1805 The North-West and XY Companies unite.  
Harmon begins his explorations.
- 1806 Brock takes command of the forces in the Canadas.
- 1807 Fraser explores the Fraser River to the Pacific Ocean.  
Thompson begins his explorations in British Columbia.
- 1809 Molson builds the first steamer in Canada.
- 1810 The Pacific Fur Company is formed.
- 1811 Brock becomes president and administrator of Upper Canada.  
Fort Astoria is built.
- 1812 The United States declares war against Great Britain.
- 1812 Brock captures Detroit.  
Brock is killed at Queenston Heights.  
Selkirk forms the Red River Settlement.
- 1813 The Americans are defeated by Procter at Frenchtown.  
The British are unsuccessful at Sackett's Harbour.

- 1813 The Americans are defeated at Stoney Creek and Beaver Dam.  
York is burned by the Americans.  
The British fleet is victorious on Lake Ontario.  
The Americans destroy the British fleet on Lake Erie.  
The British are defeated at Moravian Town and Tecumseh is killed.  
The Americans are defeated at Chateauguay and at Chrysler's Farm.  
The Americans burn Niagara.
- 1814 The Americans are driven back at La Colle Mill.  
The British are repulsed at Chippewa.  
The Americans are defeated at Lundy's Lane.  
The British are defeated at Plattsburg.  
The treaty of Ghent is signed.
- 1816 The fur companies clash at Seven Oaks.  
Fort Douglas is captured by the Nor' Westers.  
The first Canadian steamer on Lake Ontario, the "Frontenac," is launched.
- 1817 Selkirk recovers Fort Douglas.  
The Bank of Montreal is established.  
The Rush-Bagot Treaty limits armaments on the Great Lakes.  
Robert Gourlay comes to Canada.
- 1818 The London Convention is signed.  
Fathers Provencher and Dumoulin arrive at Red River.
- 1819 Robert Gourlay is imprisoned for libel.
- 1820 Lord Dalhousie becomes governor-general.
- 1821 McGill University is chartered.  
The Hudson's Bay and North-West Companies unite.  
Simpson becomes governor of the Hudson's Bay Company.
- 1822 The Canada Trade Act is passed.
- 1824 MacKenzie issues the first number of the *Colonial Advocate*.  
Fort Vancouver is built.
- 1825 The Lachine Canal is completed.
- 1826 The Canada Company is chartered.
- 1827 The University of King's College, at York, obtains a royal charter.  
Strachan becomes Archdeacon of York.
- 1829 Ryerson edits the first number of the *Christian Guardian*.  
The Welland Canal is formally opened.
- 1830 Upper Canada College is founded at York.
- 1831 Mackenzie is expelled from the Upper Canada Assembly.
- 1833 The "Royal William" crosses the Atlantic.  
Back explores the northern regions.
- 1834 The "Ninety-two Resolutions" are passed by the Lower Canada Assembly.  
Mackenzie is elected the first mayor of the city of Toronto.
- 1835 Howe is acquitted on a charge of criminal libel.  
Fort Garry is built.  
The Council of Assiniboia is organized.

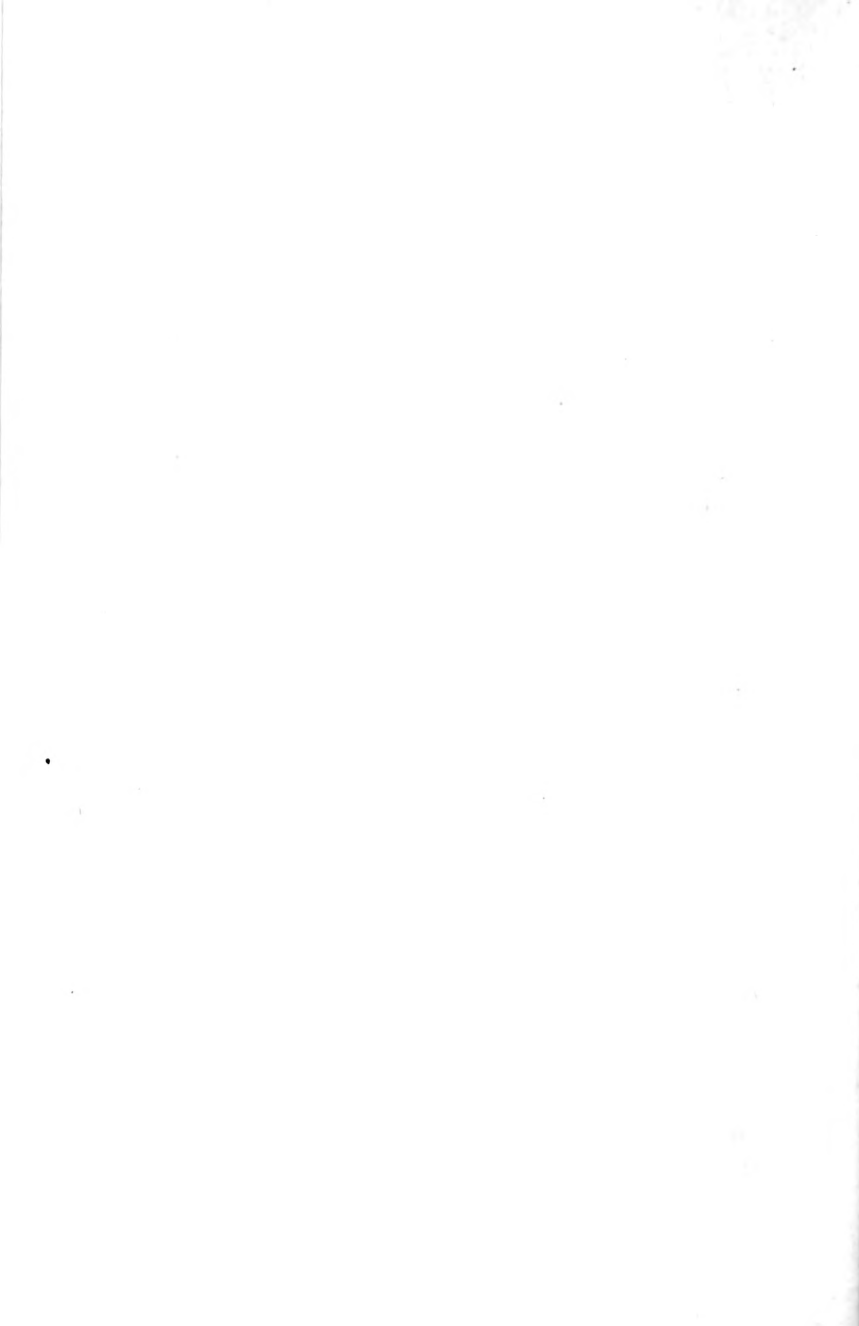
- 1836 The first passenger railway in Canada is opened (The Champlain and St. Lawrence).  
The "Report on Grievances" is passed by the Upper Canada Assembly.  
The Assembly of Lower Canada refuses to vote supplies.
- 1837 The "Twelve Resolutions" are passed by the Nova Scotia Assembly.  
The rebellions in Upper and Lower Canada are suppressed.  
The steamer "Caroline" is sent over Niagara Falls.
- 1838 The constitution of Lower Canada is suspended.  
Lord Durham is appointed governor-general of British North America.  
Rebellion again breaks out in Lower Canada.
- 1839 Lord Durham issues his report.  
The "Aroostook War" threatens trouble with the United States.  
Thom becomes recorder of the Red River Settlement.  
Sydenham becomes governor-general of the Canadas.
- 1840 Campbell explores the Yukon.
- 1841 The Union Act unites the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada.  
The first Parliament of the new province of Canada meets at Kingston.  
Victoria University obtains a royal charter.
- 1842 Queen's University, Kingston, obtains a royal charter.  
The Ashburton Treaty is signed.  
The first La Fontaine-Baldwin government takes office.
- 1843 Douglas founds the city of Victoria.  
The first County Model Schools are established in Upper Canada.
- 1844 George Brown founds *The Globe*.  
Ryerson becomes superintendent of education for Upper Canada.
- 1846 The Oregon Treaty is signed.
- 1847 Lord Elgin is appointed governor-general of Canada.  
French becomes an official language of Canada.  
The Toronto Normal School is opened.  
Fort Yukon is built.  
The first telegraph wire is strung in Canada.
- 1848 The second La Fontaine-Baldwin ministry is formed.  
Triumph of Responsible Government.
- 1849 The Rebellion Losses Bill is passed.  
The Parliament Buildings at Montreal are burned by a mob.  
The Amnesty Bill is passed.  
The Navigation Laws are repealed.  
The "Baldwin Act" establishes local self-government.  
Ottawa University is chartered.  
King's College becomes the University of Toronto.  
Vancouver Island is granted to the Hudson's Bay Company.

- 1851 Canada assumes charge of the Post Office.  
The Hincks-Morin ministry is formed.  
The first postage stamp in Canada is used.
- 1852 Laval University and Trinity University are chartered.
- 1854 The Reciprocity Treaty between Canada and the United States is signed.  
The MacNab-Morin ministry is formed.  
Seigniorial Tenure is abolished.  
The Clergy Reserves are secularized.  
Sir Edmund Head becomes governor-general.
- 1855 The Reciprocity Treaty with the United States goes into effect.
- 1856 The Taché-Macdonald ministry is formed.  
The Legislative Council of Canada becomes elective.
- 1857 The "Representation by Population" movement is begun.  
The Macdonald-Cartier government is formed.  
Report on the Hudson's Bay Company is issued.
- 1858 The Brown-Dorion ministry holds office for a short time.  
The Cartier-Macdonald ministry is formed.  
British Columbia becomes a Crown Colony.  
Begbie is appointed judge of British Columbia.  
Ottawa is chosen by the queen as the capital of Canada.  
Decimal currency is adopted in Canada.
- 1859 Vancouver Island becomes a Crown Colony.
- 1860 The Victoria bridge at Montreal is opened.  
The Prince Edward Island Land Purchase Act is passed.
- 1861 Lord Monck is appointed governor-general.  
The "Trent" affair causes trouble with the United States.
- 1862 The Macdonald-Scotte ministry is formed.
- 1864 The Taché-Macdonald ministry is formed.  
George Brown enters the ministry.  
The Charlottetown Conference is held.  
The Quebec Conference is held.
- 1866 The Reciprocity Treaty with the United States is abrogated.  
The Fenians invade Canada.  
The Westminster Conference agrees on terms of confederation.  
Vancouver Island is united to British Columbia.
- 1867 The British North America Act is passed.  
Lord Monck becomes governor-general of Canada.  
Sir John A. Macdonald becomes the first premier of Canada.  
John Sandfield Macdonald becomes the first premier of Ontario.  
Bishop Strachan dies at Toronto.  
The first Legislature of British Columbia meets at Victoria.
- 1868 The Militia Act is passed.
- 1869 Better terms are granted to Nova Scotia.  
Joseph Howe enters the Dominion government.
- 1870 The Hudson Bay Territory is purchased by Canada.  
Manitoba becomes a province of Canada.

- 1870 The Red River Rebellion is suppressed.
- 1871 The Washington Treaty is signed.  
A uniform currency is provided for Canada.  
British Columbia becomes a province of Canada.  
The first census of the Dominion is taken.
- 1872 Lord Dufferin becomes governor-general.  
Oliver Mowat becomes premier of Ontario.  
The ownership of San Juan Island is decided.
- 1873 The city of Winnipeg is incorporated.  
Alexander Mackenzie becomes premier.  
Prince Edward Island becomes a province of Canada.  
Sir Georges E. Cartier dies.  
The Royal North-West Mounted Police force is organized.
- 1874 The "Carnarvon Terms" are accepted.  
Vote by ballot is introduced.
- 1875 The Supreme Court of Canada is organized.  
The North-West Territories are organized.
- 1876 The Intercolonial Railway is opened.  
The Royal Military College at Kingston is established.  
The Legislative Council of Manitoba is abolished.
- 1877 The Halifax Fishery Commission makes its award.
- 1878 Sir John A. Macdonald again becomes premier.
- 1879 The "National Policy" is adopted.
- 1880 The first Canadian High Commissioner in England is appointed.  
The Arctic islands are added to Canada.  
George Brown is assassinated.
- 1881 The Canadian Pacific Railway Company is chartered.
- 1882 The North-West Territories are divided into provisional districts.  
Regina becomes the capital of the North-West Territories.  
The Royal Society of Canada is founded.
- 1884 The Privy Council sustains the Ontario Legislature in connection with the "Streams Bill."
- 1885 The Saskatchewan Rebellion is suppressed.  
The Canadian Pacific Railway is completed.
- 1887 An Imperial Conference is held at London.  
The first Interprovincial Conference is held.  
McMaster University is chartered.
- 1888 The North-West Territories are granted an Assembly.  
The Jesuits' Estates Act is passed by the Quebec Legislature.  
The Privy Council decides in favour of Ontario in connection with the Indian lands and liquor licenses.
- 1889 An Imperial statute confirms and extends the boundaries of Ontario.
- 1890 Separate schools are abolished in Manitoba.
- 1891 Sir John A. Macdonald dies.
- 1892 Alexander Mackenzie dies.  
The Legislative Council of New Brunswick is abolished.



- 1893 The Behring Sea Arbitration Tribunal makes its award.
- 1894 A Colonial Trade Conference is held at Ottawa.
- 1896 The "Remedial Bill" is withdrawn.  
     Wilfrid Laurier becomes premier of Canada.  
     Lord Strathcona becomes Canadian High Commissioner in  
     England.
- 1897 The Yukon Territory is organized.  
     The preferential tariff on imports from Great Britain goes into  
     effect.  
     The North-West Territories obtain complete responsible govern- •  
     ment.
- 1898 The Canadian Northern Railway Company is formed.  
     The Anglo-American Commission meets.
- 1899 The two-cent postal rate goes into force in Canada.  
     George W. Ross becomes premier of Ontario.  
     Canada sends troops to South Africa during the Boer War.
- 1902 A Conference of colonial premiers is held at London.  
     The all-British cable is completed.
- 1903 The Grand Trunk Pacific Railway Company is chartered.  
     The Alaska Boundary Arbitrators make their award.
- 1904 The Dominion Railway Commission is organized.
- 1905 James Pliny Whitney becomes premier of Ontario.  
     The provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan are formed.
- 1907 A trade agreement is entered into with France.
- 1908 The Tercentenary of the founding of Quebec is celebrated.  
     A joint Boundary Commission is agreed on between Canada  
     and the United States.
- 1909 The Commission for the Conservation of Natural Resources is  
     appointed.
- 1910 Arrangements are made for the establishment of a Canadian  
     navy.  
     The Hague Arbitration Court makes its award in regard to the  
     fisheries dispute.
- 1911 Robert Laird Borden becomes premier of Canada.
- 1912 The boundaries of Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec are extended.



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